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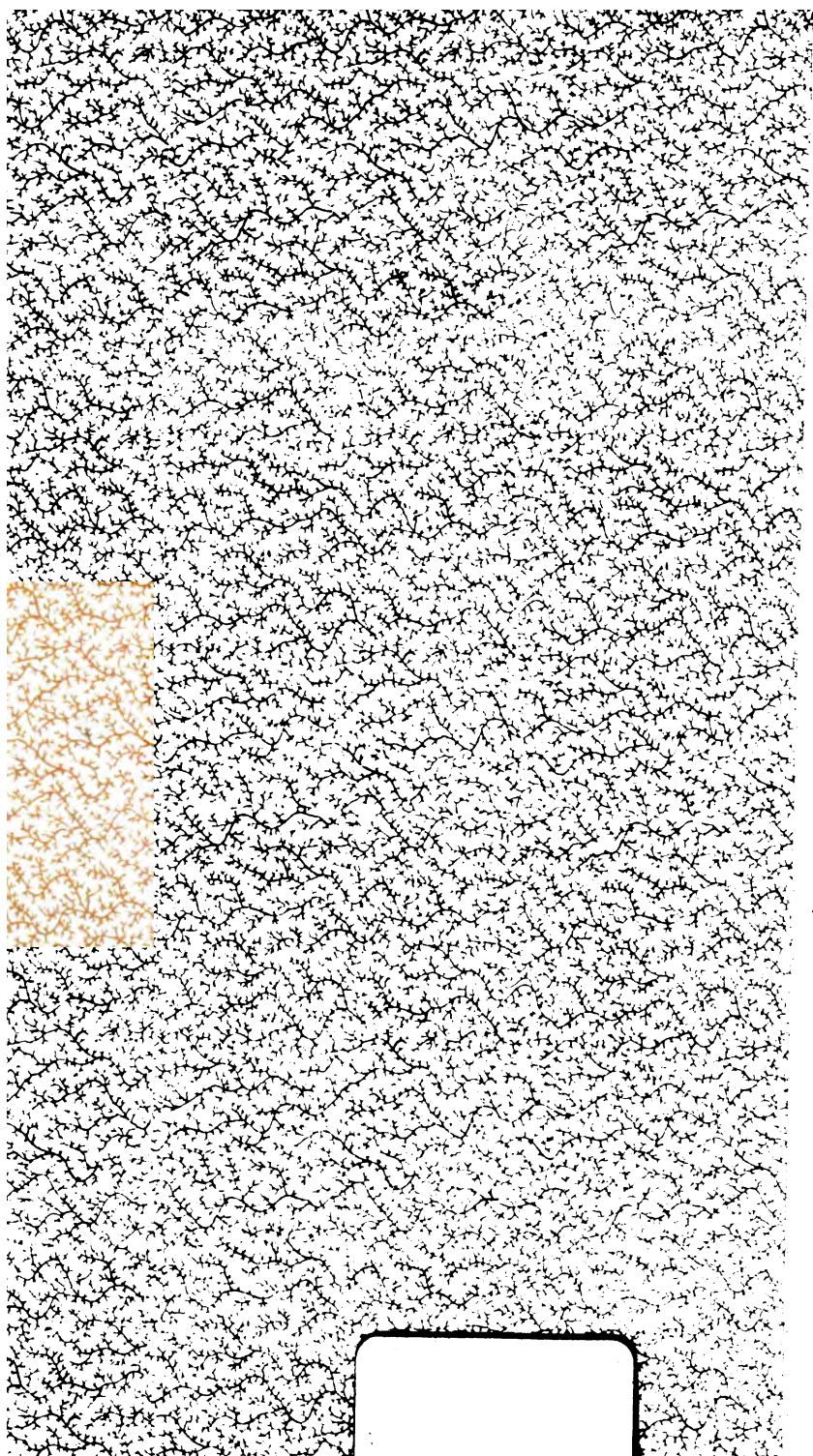
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M,DCCC,X.

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ARMSTRONG.

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VOLUME LXI.

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## ERRATA in Volume LXI.

- Page 1. last line, for *tyduria*, r. *iduria*.  
 20. l. 24. for 'resinge,' r. *refuge*.  
 47. l. 25. for 'covered,' r. *covered*.  
 65. l. 3. from bott. for 'had,' r. *has*.  
 115. l. 15. for 'Monk,' r. *Maulc*.  
 281. l. 10. from bott. for 'earth,' r. *earthr*.  
 333. in the *Canzonetta to Nice*, the words "*Ti pario*" should be removed from line two of the second column, and placed at the bottom of the first column, after "*To felice*."  
 342. l. 13. for 'Harmony,' r. *sweetness*.  
 360. l. 15. from bott. for 'in,' r. *is*.  
 418. l. 19. for 'Propectus,' r. *Prospectus*.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JANUARY, 1810.

ART. I. *The Satires of A. Persius Flaccus*, translated, with Notes on the Original, by the Rev. F. Howes, A. M. 8vo. pp. 142. 7s. Boards. Mawman. 1809.

WE had no poetical translation of Persius, nor indeed of any antient poet, before the days of Dryden. As to Holyday, and others who had partially attempted the task, their efforts were so many additional proofs of the truth of that stalest of old adages, "*poeta nascitur, non fit*:" but Dryden, even when a boy, revived and embodied the spirit of Persius. He translated some of this poet while he was at Westminster school, and with peculiar propriety dedicated the fifth Satire to his reverend instructor. Doubtless, under the tuition of Busby, aided by his own transcendent genius, he became sufficiently acquainted with the doctrines of the poet, and with much of the other preliminary or collateral knowledge which was requisite for a proper interpretation of his Satires; and consequently he has given the general meaning of Persius with fidelity as well as with animation, though too often from choice, but still more often from carelessness, he has substituted thoughts of his own for those of his author. Sometimes we are glad of the exchange; and the readers of Dryden's age were not so fastidious with regard to the accuracy with which every image and even word of a Greek or Roman writer was presented to them, as the hypercritical spirit of our own times compels all those authors to be, who are ambitious of the name of classical scholars. Yet, it must be confessed, Dryden was too original to become a thoroughly good translator, which is an inferior character, and can only be justly played by an inferior actor. Learning and judgment are indispensably necessary for the due discharge of this office, together with a facility of versification, whatever may be thought by some remaining disciples of the rugged school: but these three qualifications are not sufficient to constitute a poet. The *πνεῦμα*—the spirit that *ἰδρύσῃ, καὶ βαρύνει*—*Imagination*,

in a word, must complete this extraordinary union of divine qualities ;—and Imagination will destroy the translator.

Our particular illustration, however, of Dryden's excellencies or defects in his Persius, must be reserved to the comparison which, in the course of this article, we shall institute between his translation, that of Brewster, and that of Mr. Howes. Of *Thelyphthora* Madan's version, we have spoken in our lxxxist vol. p. 481., and of Mr. Drummond's elegant but too paraphrastic composition, in our xxviiith vol. N. S. p. 90.

Concerning the specific character of his author, Mr. Howes observes, 'He that is fond of arch raillery at the foibles of mankind, will prefer Horace ; he that burns with indignation at its vices, will cry up Juvenal ; and a third, who relishes keen irony, and jeering sarcasms at its absurdities, will attach himself to Persius.'—Where is the nice distinction between the foibles and the absurdities of mankind ? Between raillery and sarcasm a difference certainly prevails ; and it is the manner in which they treat the same subjects, not the subjects themselves, that forms the difference between the first and the last of these writers. Horace may be distinguished as easily from Persius, as any courteous, good-humoured, and pleasant writer may be known from one who is stoical, difficult, and severe ; and Juvenal may be distinguished as easily from them both, as a genuine poet in the first case may be known from an agreeable essayist in measured prose, (or, at best, slipshod verse,) and in the other, from a boyish philosopher, who wrote better verse than Horace, but is much inferior to him as an useful and practical satirist. Not that the verse of Persius (with the exception of several brilliant passages) is to be compared to the verse of Juvenal. As to his matter, it is a proof indeed of perverted taste to assimilate it in point of dignity, interest, or any kind of excellence, with the themes discussed by the glowing and indignant virtue of Juvenal ; or, in many instances, to the more profitable and engaging subjects which call forth the sensible though too accommodating morality of Horace. Persius is the least practical author of the three ; and he deals too largely in the abstract precepts of his peculiar philosophy, which are frequently not reducible to human action. He is in a word a young Stoic ; and a poet (for such he was in an eminent degree, we think, by nature,) thrown away upon stoicism.

We are far from agreeing with St. Jerom, (or indeed from believing that St. Jerom, according to the story, affirmed) that Persius should be cut in pieces, and cast into the fire, in order

order to see whether there was anything more intelligible in his *inside* than the worthy father could discover *without*:—on the contrary, we imagine with Mr. Gifford (who, we hear, and we hope, is engaged on this author,) that Casaubon could have defended the seeming unintelligibility of Persius more manfully than he has defended it, “had he not been over-awed by the brutality of the elder Scaliger.” To understand and appreciate the Satires of Persius, we must be familiar with the doctrines of Zeno, and we must remember in whose reign he lived;—that, although young, he had the advice of Cornutus to check the ebullitions of youthful spleen and contempt;—that he could not even criticize, in plain language, the literary follies of the Emperor, without danger;—and in short, that his natural taste, the mode of his education, and the circumstances of the times in which he lived, all contributed to render him (what he wished and conceived himself to be) a reserved and dignified, rather than an open and entertaining writer,—and at all events, to a certain degree, involved him in obscurity.

If against all these considerations we set the argument that he could not be afraid of speaking out, when he confined the reading of his verses to a few friends, and that his Satires were not published till the objects of them and he himself were consigned to the grave, we must then conclude that he does not deserve to be understood, since he did not chuse to be understood; and what we before attributed to his caution as a man, we must detract from his genius as a poet, and really allow him to be the Lycophron of the Latins. This, however, as we have before stated, we are by no means disposed to admit.—Another distinction, similar to that which is above examined, between the character of his author and those of Horace and Juvenal, is attempted by Mr. Howes in his Introduction. ‘Horace (he says) raised a laugh at the lighter foibles of the world, rather than a sneer at its vanities, or a frown at its crimes.’—Now the first and the last members of this sentence may be put in opposition to each other clearly enough: but the first and the second cannot, with equal clearness. It is scarcely possible to laugh at folly without sneering at vanity, and *vice versa*. If Mr. H. means to allude to the sarcastic sneers of Persius at the vanity of some of his poetical contemporaries, and Nero among the rest, let us remind him that the passage in Horace,

“*Furius hybernas canã nive conspuet Alpes,*”

(not to mention many others,) is precisely such a sneer. If he means to praise the satire of his author on avarice, gluttony,

and other more enormous vices, here Persius resembles Juvenal in indignation, and certainly 'raises a frown at the crimes of mankind.' Mr. H. is judicious in what he says concerning the oblique strokes of satire in Horace; who hits *en passant*, and does not seem to turn out of his way for the purpose of punishing an offender; and who preserves his good humour even in finding fault. This good humour, indeed, he carries to an excess, and he only laughs at knaves as well as at fools.—Persius is here more correct and decided in his morality, and partakes of the honest anger of Juvenal: but as to folly or absurdity, we see little reason to distinguish his sneers from those of Horace, at bad poets or other nonsensical beings. Nor is Mr. Howes, we think, fortunate in his remarks on the 'swelling language of Juvenal,' as he denominates it. He quotes a passage from the 6th Satire, "*Altum Satiræ sumentem cothurnum*," &c., and observes that 'what Juvenal expresses an apprehension others will say of him, is not far from the truth.' Had Mr. H. referred to the two words immediately preceding his quotation, he would have seen that Juvenal expresses no apprehension with regard to the opinion that may be formed of his style, but, anticipating a supposed objection to his veracity, says, "*Fingimus hæc*"—"These stories of Roman profligacy are like the inventions of the Greek tragedians—I wish they were!" he continues: "but hear that criminal confess, and after her confession, believe even the tales of Progne and Medæa." To return to Horace and Persius.

A more serious charge than those which are above stated must, in our opinion, be brought against the discrimination and taste of Mr. Howes. He praises the versification of Horace in his Satires, and he contends that these poems are written in good hexameters. Surely Mr. H. knows not what good hexameters are, if he talks thus. Horace himself confesses that he writes "*sermone repentem per humum*;" and he is for ever repeating this confession, really, if not verbally, throughout (we had almost said) his *prose* works.—Then to see Mr. H. cavilling with 'the *seemingly* negligent verses of Horace;' and with the character of a poet.

"—*Parcentis viribus, atque  
Extenuantis eas consulto*"—

and with his inappropriate though hacknied quotation, "from grave to gay, from lively to severe," which applies to the matter and not to the manner of a poem, if it applies to any thing in this place;—to see all this were provoking, were it not absurd.

Mr.

Mr. H.'s comment on Pope leads him still farther into paradox. His quotations—

“ Satire or sense alas ! can Sporus feel ?  
Who breaks a butterfly upon a wheel !

and—

“ Booth enters—hark ! the universal peal !  
But has he spoken ?—Not a syllable”—

are not instances of negligent or uneven versification. The lines run well and musically. The art lies in the familiarity of the illustration in the first instance, and in the colloquial ease of the expression in the second. All this confusion arises from not distinguishing between smoothness of versification and dignity of language : for smooth versification, composed in words adapted to heroic subjects, becomes of course dignified. Mr. Howes is kept in countenance by a much higher critic, Dr. Armstrong ; who (according to Mr. H.'s quotation from Dr. Warton) thus expresses himself : “ Had Horace written his Satires or Epistles in the same kind of numbers with Virgil's *Æneid*, it would have been a monstrous impropriety ; like hunting the fox or the hare on a war-horse, with the equipage of a General at a review or in the day of battle. He knew very well that in familiar writings dignity of versification would be quite ridiculous :”—but not smoothness or evenness of versification ; nor should we hunt the fox or the hare on a broken-down hack, in an old rusty hat, and in a coat darned to hide the holes, because a full suit of regimentals would be ridiculous. Such self-evident truths are unworthy of the record of a man of genius. Is there not an obvious medium between the dignity of Virgil's numbers (a dignity, by the way, much more derived from the language than from the flow of his verse,) and the slovenliness of those of Horace ? Has not Juvenal, almost throughout his Satires, hit this happy medium ?—his few prosaic passages hardly bearing proportion to the poetical passages of Horace. We are speaking, be it remembered, of rhythm and cadence, as necessary to the composition of good hexameter verse.—Has not Persius far excelled Horace in his versification ?—Mr. Howes has, doubtless, either been educated at a public school, or has largely quaffed, like many distinguished scholars, from the secret fountains of antient poetry. How then can he speak of the looseness of the metre of Horace with praise, and imagine that it adds even to the humour of his author ? Humour is heightened in poetry by a musical rhythm. As far as the verse of eight syllables will admit of harmonious numbers, Butler excels in that harmony ; for his pauses and cadences



are just and pleasing ;—while Donne and Hall, (if we must not except the latter, from whose *Satires* Mr. Howes extracts an excellent motto,) and all our older Satirists, either from external circumstances or from want of poetical feeling, write much more negligently, and of consequence much more unmusically, than Horace, from choice or from carelessness, wrote in his *Satires*. Whichever of these causes produced the frequently (though by no means universally) halting and hobbling, or at all events too humble, verse of these poems, it must always be regretted, we think, by readers of any genius or any taste, and can only be left to the admiration of the very respectable body of hot-headed critics, and cold-blooded poets.

We shall no farther attend Mr. Howes through the trite materials of his Introduction. Horace, Persius, and Juvenal have been fully examined by writers of a superior class. Nor shall we dilate on his life of Persius ; in the collection and corroboration of which account, from various sources, from classical writers, grammarians, and critics, we willingly allow Mr. H. the praise of judgment and of industry. Indeed, we think that he is rather eminently qualified for the duties of a commentator, when no wrong bias perverts his conclusions, and he does not lose himself in too general a view of his subject. We shall with pleasure refer to many useful passages in his notes ; and of his poetry we shall soon proceed to select several specimens, by which our readers may decide whether our accompanying opinion of them be founded on right or erroneous principles of criticism :—but first let us recur to Brewster.

If we were to judge Brewster by Mr. Howes's criterion of a good poetical style, namely the mixture of even and uneven versification, we should declare him to be one of the first of poets ; and, on the whole, we do think that he is the best translator of Persius who has yet appeared. Although, however, we highly admire the vigour and the elegance with which he has rendered many of the most striking passages of his author, and indeed the general tenour of his version, in which freedom and fidelity are happily united ; yet we are not insensible of the too great familiarity, nay, coarseness of his language, in numerous instances. He is certainly in some passages careless, though these are rare, as to the exact sense of his author ; and too often culpably inattentive to his own manner of expressing it. Nevertheless, take him for all in all, he seems to us to have attained, better than any of his competitors, the true medium between a ruggedness of verse too barbarous for English poetry, and a polish of expression too refined

refined for a translator of Persius. Let us take his description of the fashionable poet on the day of recitation, from the first Satire; in which the author exposes the bad taste in poetical composition which prevailed at Rome under the reign of Nero:

"And lo the promis'd day! at length 'tis here:  
 New cloath'd, *new powder'd*, see the wit appear!  
 A finish'd beau, forsooth, behold him stand,  
 A birth-day jewel sparkling on his hand.  
 A soft'ning gargle tunes his warbling throat,  
 And fits the varying pipe for every note.  
 A desk, rais'd high, the list'ning throng controuls,  
 He mounts, and out the melting poem rolls.  
 His eye a comment to the sense affords,  
 And adds lascivious looks to luscious words.  
 "These are the means, the shameful means! that please;  
 Rome's very nobles own the pow'r of these.  
 Soon as the lewd, the lust-provoking line,  
 (Assisted by the soft, salacious whine)  
 Shoots through the bones its prurient influence,  
 And wakes the tickled marrow's inmost sense,  
 Lo, how they all a wriggling joy confess,  
 And vile applause, in broken sounds, express!"

Brewster's Persius. Satire First.

In this passage, Brewster is very slightly, if at all, indebted to Dryden, but he has improved on him greatly indeed. Mr. Howes is perhaps a little obliged to Brewster, but has not, in our opinion, improved on him, "*except as herein after excepted.*" We extract his lines with pleasure, as affording one of the best specimens of poetry in his volume:

'At length this fulsome fustian you recite,  
 With spruce-comb'd hair and gown of glossy-white!  
 Throned in the lofty desk you take your stand,  
 A birth-day onyx glittering on your hand:  
 With liquid gargles first (that every note  
 May softly flow) you rince the pliant throat;  
 Then pausing oft, upon the standers by  
 Fling round the luscious leer and languid eye.  
 There many a high-born Titus may be view'd,  
 Whose faltering tongue, short breath, and gestures lewd,  
 Speak how your tickling rhymes, like amorous spells,  
 Wake slumbering Lust within her secret cells.'

The personification of lust, in the concluding line of this extract, though well-imagined and expressed, is foreign to the spirit of the original: but the whole passage has two advantages over that of Brewster; it is much more compressed, and it contains nothing so wide of translation, and so English, as

the epithet *new-powdered*. The freedom of Imitation gives incalculable effect to poetry built on an antient basis; and Satire is rendered immortal, when, divesting itself of the peculiarities of time and place, it seizes on similar follies and vices in other æras and countries, and preserves the spirit of an original with the correctness of a copy. Translation is another thing;—it must be correct;—and we fear, from the difference of idiom in almost all languages, (particularly in the Latin and the English,) that it cannot be correct and poetical. Besides these difficulties, which must embarrass all translators of Latin poetry into English, the man of genius, the natural poet, will have other obstacles peculiar to himself: but, as these are difficulties by no means necessary to be investigated in a review of the present translation of Persius, we shall waive their fuller discussion till a more worthy opportunity arises.

If, in the last passage, any readers have differed from us as to the distribution of degrees of honour, or if they know not to which candidate to say "*Detur digniori*," let them consider the following lines.—Mr. Howes thus renders Persius, when the poet confesses himself ambitious of the praise of good judges, and of good judges only, AS A POET; and we highly admire the spirit of Persius in this declaration:

' If aught by chance of happier vein appear—  
In me a chance indeed!—but yet, if e'er  
Some brighter thought be by the muse inspired,  
I am not one that scorns to be admired:  
To well-earn'd praise I am not callous grown,  
Nor is my heart philosophiz'd to stone.  
But that your *bravo* and *bravissimo*  
Should be the end and aim of all we do,—  
That flimsy compliment should form the test  
And touch-stone of all merit—'tis a jest!  
For view these compliments with reason's eye,  
And mark how weak they err—how bold they lie!  
Say, are not these your critics that adore  
Iliads inspir'd by juice of Hellebore?  
Should some crude Lordling dictate some poor sonnet,  
Say, are not these the praises pour'd upon it?  
And these the fulsome flatteries that attend  
Whatever on a *Citron* couch is penn'd?—

Now let us mark Brewster:

" If in my writings, by a luckier hit,  
(Luck it must be) I deviate into wit;  
Know, then, howe'er I scorn applause undue,  
Then, I can praise accept—approve it too.  
To glory's charms not callous is my heart,  
Such glory as results from true desert.

But

But that these eulogies of fools should be  
 The final aim—to that I can't agree.  
 For silt (I beg) all this their mighty praise:  
 Includes it not e'en Labeo's paltry lays?  
 His very Iliad? and each fustian strain  
 Teem'd from his purg'd, helleborated brain?  
 Includes it not our noble sonneteers,  
 Whose flux of elegy infests our ears?  
 Nay, all the trash that trickles from the heads  
 Of glutted fops, who loll on citron beds?"

The last four lines appear to us peculiarly energetic.

In the subjoined passage, though it amplifies the author much too liberally, (a fault of which Brewster also is often guilty, and which perhaps is made necessary by the very construction of our language, when it is used as an instrument of conveyance for the force and matter and spirit of Latin poetry,) yet, we say, Mr. Howes displays considerable genius:

' Had we one spark surviving of the fires  
 Which warm'd the manly bosoms of our sires,  
 Should we not loath with merited disdain  
 This washy drivel of a doating brain?  
 Yet such is now the nerveless trash that drips  
 In bubbling impotence from frothy lips;  
 No ray of genius glimmering through the tale,  
 That speaks the well thump'd desk or bitten nail!'

Here Mr. Howes far excels Brewster:—but he does it (as every translator must excel another) by leaving the body and catching the soul of his author. The 4th line of the above translation is borrowed and new-clad from Mr. Gifford's imitation of the same passage in Persius—(see Baviad or Mæviad)

"The ropy drivel of rheumatic brains." Gifford.

'This washy drivel of a doating brain.' Howes.

Old Brewster rises again over the modern in the following animated lines, in which Persius indignantly feels, as Juvenal felt after him, the comparison between the fear and slavery of a Satirist in his own age, and the courage and liberty of those before them!

"Yet could Lucilius lash a vicious age,  
 Mutius and Lupus felt his grinding rage.  
 Yet could shrewd Horace, with disportive wit,  
 Rally his friend, and tickle while he bit:  
 Winning access, he played around the heart:  
 And, gently touching, prick'd the tainted part.

The crowd he sneer'd \* but sneer'd \* with such a grace,  
It pass'd for downright innocence of face."

Dryden has undoubtedly given a wrong turn to this passage:—

"But made the desperate passes when he smil'd"

is a happy metaphor from fencing, but has nothing to do with Horace. It may be "a hit! a palpable hit!" but it hits not the sense of Persius, nor the character of Horace. He made no "desperate passes," as Mr. Gifford observes: but we cannot agree with this gentleman in his praise of his friend Mr. Drummond's translation of this passage. It is elegant, but unlike Persius. Though Mr. Howes gives the lines a good effect, yet, as we have said, we prefer Brewster, who seems to us to have here improved on Dryden in the poetry, and to have corrected him in the sense. Our readers may listen to Mr. Howes:

'With poignant wit Lucilius lash'd his age,  
And wreak'd on knaves and fools his honest rage;  
To Lupus oft he told unwelcome truth,  
And Mucius writh'd beneath his grinding tooth.  
Horace reprov'd the world with gentler wiles,  
And, while he touch'd their foibles, won their smiles;  
With playful railery and good-humour'd art,  
A welcome guest he flutters round the heart;  
Bids folly chuckle at her own expense,  
And fairly laughs us into common sense."

In the beautiful though ironical verses on the honours paid to an undeserving poet, Mr. Howes perhaps excels Brewster: but Dryden excels them both, as we might expect, on such an opportunity for a burst of song.—Yet the great master wins carelessly,—“wins (as the jockies say) in a canter,” and without putting out half his speed:

"Then, graciously, the mellow audience nod;  
Is not th' immortal author made a god?  
Are not his manes blest, such praise to have?  
Lies not the turf more lightly on his grave?  
And roses (while his loud applause they sing)  
Stand ready from his sepulchre to spring?"

Dryden's Persius.

How tame and flat, in Mr. Howes's translation, is the noble appeal of Persius to the admirers of the Old Greek Comedy, whom he justly claims for his own readers?

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\* We were about to substitute "seer'd" for "sneer'd" in this passage—supposing "sneer'd," used actively, to be a false print: but it may have been admissible 60 years ago.



' Reader! if bold Cratinus thee inspire,  
Or Eupolis with his own frenzy fire;  
Or that gay humourist delight thee more  
That set of old all Athens in a roar,  
On these poor pages look, if haply these  
Have aught of kindred merit that can please:  
When the blest vapours which from them proceed  
Have duly purg'd thine ears, approach and read.'

Now Brewster:—

"Thou then, whom bold Cratinus' zeal inspires,  
And his free line with generous ardour fires!  
Thou, who grow'st pale o'er Eupolis's rage,  
Pale o'er the mighty master's drolling page:  
Come hither too!—If aught more mellow'd here,  
If, haply, aught more finish'd, strike your ear,  
Let the rare beauties win you to proceed,  
Oh! let your bosom kindle as you read."

This is nature, this is poetry;—and yet Mr. Howes has caught the 'blest vapours,' which Brewster missed. We will extract his note also on this passage, which is creditable to his taste, his scholarship, and his modesty:

'*Inde vaporata*, &c. This has been thought to be a metaphor borrowed from medical fomentations applied to the ears. I rather think it alludes to the mode of inspiration attributed to some of the ancient oracular temples, namely, by vapours issuing from a cavern. There is a very fine allusion of the same kind in a passage of Longinus which is well worth the transcribing.

Ἐπὶ πολλοὶ γὰρ ἄλλοτερον θεωροῦνται πνεύματι, τοῦ αὐτοῦ τροπον ὃν καὶ τῇ Πυθίᾳ λόγος ἔχει, τριπόδι πλησιαζούσα (ἰδὲ 'ΡΗΓΜ' ἜΣΤΙ ΓῆΣ ἈΝΑΠΝΕΟΝ, ὡς φασὶν, ἈΤΜΟΝ' ΕΝΘΕΟΝ), αὐτοδὴν ἐγκύματα τῆς δαίμονου καθισταμένη δύναμις, παραπληροῦς χρησμοδῶν κατ' ἐπιπνεύματα· οὕτως ἔτι τῆς τῶν ἀρχαίων μεγαλοφυΐας ἡ; τὰς τῶν ζήλοντων ἱερέων ψυχὰς; ἡ; ἀπὸ ἱερῶν σπέρμων, ἀπορρέουσι τινες φέρονται, ὅφ' ὧν ἐπιπνεύματος, καὶ οἱ μὴ λίαν φοβιστικῶς, τῷ ἱερεὶ συνιθροῦσιν μεγαλύνειν. C. xi. Sect. 13.

"Many a writer has been animated with the spirit of another; in the same manner as, it is said, the Pythian priestess, when she mounts the Tripod (where, as the poet says,

'Inspiring vapours from the cleft arise,')

is instantaneously impregnated with the divine influence, and pours forth her predictions as the God suggests them. So from the sublime specimens of genius left us by the ancients, as from those hallowed orifices above mentioned, certain currents of inspiration are wafted into the souls of their followers, by whose energy some writers, who have no great elevation of thought to boast of in themselves, are nevertheless actuated till they catch a considerable portion of the fire and fervour of their originals."

'In endeavouring to do justice to this brilliant but somewhat elaborate writer in the translation of the above passage, I feel the force

of

of his own observation and long for a *whiff* of that *inspiring steam*, that *ἄσμος ἰσθμος*, which he talks of.

It has struck us, but perhaps we are wrong, that this passage of Longinus might be better rendered as follows :

"For many are carried along by a divine Spirit, not their own, just as the Pythian priestess is agitated, when she approaches the Tripod ; where, in the poet's language,

"The bursting ground exhales a holy breath !" —

"There, at once filled with the divinity, she utters the oracles of inspiration. So, from the mighty genius of the antients, as from a source equally sacred, some animating streams are transfused into the bosoms of their imitators ; and souls of no original fire catch an enthusiasm and a majesty foreign to their nature."

In Mr. Howes's notes we find much to approve. He is evidently well acquainted with the best commentators on his author ; and he judiciously compresses their annotations. Yet he does not always borrow his remarks, some of which are original, proposed with modesty, and we think successfully urged. Those, in which any question of grammatical construction is discussed, are particularly neat and happy ; and we congratulate Mr. H.'s pupils (to whom he alludes in his Introduction) on the benefit which they must derive from such an instructor. His quotations and references imply extensive reading ; and, which is better, reading perfectly at command. We applaud, too, his mode of extracting the kernel and leaving the husk of a comment. We cannot discourage such an author from publishing his intended version of the Satires of Horace ; because these Satires do not require any very high poetical talents to give them a due effect in translation ; and because we are convinced that their sense will be faithfully and pleasingly transfused in Mr. H.'s text, and well elucidated in his notes.

For an instance of judicious grammatical observation, we must refer to the note on the bombastic verses, "*Berecynthus Attys*," &c. line 93 of the first Satire, in the original. It is too long and too uninteresting to general readers to extract. The following note, which may meet with the approbation of some critics, we do not consider as so happy :

'*Per me equidem*, &c. One of the most witty passages in Persius, and which Boileau has thought worthy of imitation ; Sat. ix. 287.

'Puisque vous le voulez, je vais changer de stile ;  
Je le declare donc, Quinault est un Virgile.  
Pradon comme un soleil en nos ans a paru,  
Pelletier écrit mieux qu' Ablancourt ni Patru.

Cotin a ses sermons traînant toute la terre

Fend les flots d'auditeurs pour aller à sa chaire.

Pope has imitated one or both, *Ep. to the Satires, Dial. II. 128.*

Is that too little? Come then, I'll comply—

Spirit of Arnall! aid me while I lie.

Cobham's a coward, Polwarth is a slave,

&c.

'Upon which passage Dr. Warton in his notes, after pronouncing it a most happy imitation of Persius and Boileau, adds that Pope however has plainly the superiority by the artful and ironical compliments paid to his friends. With the utmost deference to a critic of such acknowledged taste and erudition, I must confess that I do not perceive the superiority itself which he mentions, and much less can I conceive how the mere circumstance of the complimentary turn which Pope gives to this piece of irony makes him superior here to either of his models, supposing (which however is very doubtful) that Persius was at all in his eye.'

Surely this circumstance, which Warton, with his usual taste, has mentioned, deserves the praise bestowed on it.

We should agree with Mr. H. (see his note, line 134, *Sat. 1.*) that *Edictum* signified the Prætor's edict, as it stands, unqualified by any epithet: but, although this sort of study might suit the consequential *Podestas*, or Borough-Magistrates to whom Persius alludes in line 129, a new race of readers, namely, the lovers of mischief, derision, and debauchery, are introduced after these *Ædiles*; and to such men, as Brewster observes, the Prætor's edict would afford little entertainment. On the whole the passage seems one among the many which the author has wrapped up in voluntary obscurity by the affected conciseness of the language; and though, perhaps, the words *Edictum* and *Callirhoe* told a plain tale to Roman ears under Nero, this is only saying that an author wrote intelligibly to one age and to one country; which, indeed, is one of the drawbacks to the honour of the Satirist. All that he writes, nay even a large portion of it, can never obtain immortality; for, as Warton well observes, "wit and satire are transitory and perishable; but nature and passion are eternal."

For another example of grammatical accuracy in Mr. Howes, we would refer to his note on the word "*Ebulliat*;" line 10 of *Satire 2.* This reading is surely the right one; and the instances of similar licences, adduced from the Roman poets by Mr. H., are quite satisfactory.—The word "*Parũcũrũnt*" in Ovid, and similar words, (such, we may add, as "*Miscũcũrũnt*" in Virgil,) were wont to appear to us, in our boyish days, instances of poetical licence, arbitrarily shortening a long syllable: but they may be, as Mr. H. says, instances of the

the *u* being used for the *w*.—as indeed we thought *fluviorum, pariete*, &c. became admissible into the verse by the licentious use of the *i* for the *j*.—*Sed de his hactenus.*

The opening of the second Satire of Persius, on the proper and the improper objects of prayer, has been much and justly admired. Plato suggested this poem by his dialogue on prayer; and Juvenal and Seneca have parallel passages: the last of whom Mr. Howes has very well translated. He thus renders Persius:

‘ Welcome once more the fair and festive Day  
Which sheds upon my friend its genial ray,  
And ever, as revolves the silent sphere,  
Adds to his life's account another year;  
Sacred to Him that guards the natal hour,  
Now pour the wine, and strew the short-liv'd flow'r,—  
You—who can scorn th' unrighteous knee to bow,  
The mutter'd prayer and mercenary vow;  
Unlike the tribe that raise the suppliant eye  
For what they blush to ask, yet think to buy,  
And in low whispers *see* the Gods to hear  
Petitions only meant to meet their private ear.’

Brewster appears to us to have contributed somewhat to the above; and we still prefer him to Mr. Howes:

“ Again, Macrinus, comes the genial day,  
(O! note with whiter stone its fairer ray)  
Which, often as revolves the circling sphere,  
Adds to the past account another year.  
Go then, observant of thy natal hour,  
Go, to thy genius a libation pour.  
A plain libation: for thou know'st to join  
No bribe unhallow'd to a pray'r of thine.  
Thine, which can ev'ry ear's full test abide,  
Nor need be mutter'd to the gods, aside.  
No! thou aloud may'st thy petitions trust,  
Thou need'st not whisper, other great ones must.”

Brewster's Persius.

Dryden's version of this passage far exceeds both the above in spirit: but, as it is well known to many of our readers, we omit it, and proceed to the concluding lines of this Satire. Here we shall insert a short extract from a manuscript before us, containing a translation (by a young scholar) of the whole poem; a translation which appears to us to possess great merit.

Persius, after having exposed the wickedness of insulting the heavenly powers by requests which we should be ashamed to prefer to men, and by sacrifices which they must despise, sums up his arguments as follows:

‘ O! let

" O! let the pow'rs by nobler gifts be won  
 Than the rich off'rings of Messala's son!  
 O! let me bring to their august abode  
 Justice to man, and piety to God.  
 A heart that dares its inmost wish to name,  
 And glows throughout with Virtue's gen'rous flame!  
 With this, the humblest off'ring that I bear,  
 Pleas'd shall the God accept, and grant my pray'r."

We think that this is far superior to Mr. Howes :

' Go, then, and rather let your offering be  
 (What great Messala's purblind progeny  
 From lordliest charges never can present)  
 A conscience clear, a heart that's innocent,—  
 A deep-felt sense of right and wrong, a breast  
 With every nobler principle imprest!  
 With such oblations to the shrine repair,—  
 And, tho' a wheaten cake be all you bear,  
 Heaven shall approve the gift and grant the prayer.'

Yet this is better than either Dryden or Brewster, with the exception of that noble couplet of the former,

" A genuine Virtue, of a vigorous kind,  
 Pure in the last recesses of the mind."

Mr. H.'s note in this Satire, on the *bidental*, (or place, or person, struck by lightning, or the sacrifice consequent on such an event,) is improved from Brewster; and the addition to it, concerning an antient inscription of "*Fulgur divom conditum*," on the fragment of an altar, is curious, if not satisfactory. The proposed alterations of "*latari pratrepidum cor*" we conceive to be unnecessary: yet they are ingenious, and display a command of the Latin language. *Caperit* is, however, surely understood. The interpretation of *præclarum*, "blest" or "wish'd-for," instead of "splendid" or "pompous," as Brewster and others render it, is correct and classical.

The remark on Brewster, respecting his translation of "*Nervio jam tertia ducitur uxor*" in this Satire, 'that he has burlesqued his author,' may be true of this particular passage: though, if he had not committed the greater fault of mistaking the meaning of Persius, (a fault rare indeed with him, but for which we agree with Mr. Howes that Brewster is here answerable,) we should scarcely be disposed to quarrel with the coarseness of his couplet; Persius himself being often coarse enough in his style. We cannot allow Mr. H. to make such general remarks on Brewster, as he does (page 100) in the notes to the third Satire, without reproof. After some ex-

planation of the metaphor in line 21. of this Satire of Persius \*, Mr. H. thus observes :

\* Mr. Drummond has varied the metaphor :

‘ Yet art thou young, and yet thy pliant mind  
Yields to the gale and bends with every wind ;  
Seize then this sunny but this fleeting hour  
To nurse and cultivate the tender flower.

‘ This is certainly pretty : why was it not Persius ? I wish not however to speak petulantly of Mr. Drummond’s work. As a poet, and particularly as a master of elegant and harmonious versification, I look up to him with great respect. I only have to regret that in polishing the asperities of his author, he has rubbed off so large a portion of that strong though coarse comic humour upon which Persius prides himself. In shunning the *Verba Toge*, he has lost the rough and racy spirit which characterizes his original. In short I think Cæsar’s judiciously reserved compliment to Terence may be applied *mutatis mutandis* to Mr. Drummond’s performance :

‘ *Lenibus atque utinam scriptis adjuncta foret vis  
Comica ! &c.*

*Unum hoc maceror et doleo tibi deesse, Terenti !*

‘ Yet it ought to be mentioned in extenuation of this defect of Mr. Drummond’s version, that there was a strong inducement to err on that side from the circumstance that his predecessor Brewster had fallen into the opposite extreme of vulgar buffoonery. The wit of Brewster is of the coarsest cast, and falls as far beneath his author’s as a common Merry-Andrew is inferior to one of Shakespear’s Fools. Yet Brewster deserves commendation for the scrupulous accuracy with which he has interwoven every iota of his original in his translation, and for that small portion of ease which he *has* attained notwithstanding that scrupulousness. As to other translations of Persius, I have seen none that can be compared with the two above mentioned. My highest ambition has been to be thought to have united as much of the elegance of the one with as much of the fidelity of the other, as may reasonably be judged compatible in a performance of this kind.’

The general character here given of Mr. Drummond’s translation is very just ; and so is the praise of Brewster, but not so, in our opinion, the censure. We beg our readers to bear in mind the elegance as well as the spirit of much of our quotations from Brewster ; and we request their indulgence while we submit to their attention some farther extracts from the

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\* We may ask, what reader can fail to be offended with the harshness and violence of the metaphors and tropes of Persius ?

—— “ His mouth he scarce could ope,  
But out there flew a *most preposterous trope*.”

same

same undervalued author. He seems to have fallen a victim to a practice hitherto silently pursued, but now shamefully recommended by some brother-critics, of kicking down the ladder by which we have ascended to any eminence; that is, of mounting on the shoulders of our predecessors, and looking over their heads, without one feeling of gratitude for their assistance. This is not the genuine and honourable spirit of literature: but far above any feeling of this kind is Mr. Howes, who properly confesses all the obligations of which he is conscious, and requests the candour of his readers to attribute to forgetfulness the absence of any acknowledgement, where it may be due.—From the third Satire, (of which the chief object is the encouragement of philosophical study,) we shall select only the moral advice beginning at verse 66 of the original. Here Brewster again, we think, surpasses Howes: but the ground was pre-occupied by Dryden; and this is exactly the strain of philosophical reflection in which that noble genius most delighted to indulge. Mr. Howes has thus expressed himself:

‘Go, thoughtless wretch! and scan the sum of things,  
 Their secret causes and their latent springs;—  
 Learn what ye are, and for what ends design’d,—  
 Bound to what order, by what rules confin’d:  
 Reflect, how nice a task it is to steer  
 Your course around the goal in Life’s career:  
 How far t’ indulge your wishes; what to prize;  
 In the stamp’d coin what real virtue lies;  
 And what (since to himself no mortal lives)  
 We owe our Country and our relatives:  
 How all are posted by the heavenly powers,  
 And what peculiar post is destined yours.’

Brewster thus writes:

“Attend then, wretched youth! in time attend  
 To every natural cause, and moral end.  
 Look into man with philosophic eye,  
 Consider *what* we are, consider *why*.  
 The race of life contemplate—how to start,  
 And how to turn the goal with nicest art.  
 Learn, to what limits wealth should be confin’d;  
 Learn, to what uses ’twas by heav’n assign’d.  
 Reflect, what pray’rs with reason we may frame;  
 What debts our friends, our parents, country claim.  
 Know we are posted here by pow’r divine;  
 And think what post that pow’r has destin’d thine.”

Dryden is scarcely superior:

" Learn, wretches, learn the motions of the mind,  
 Why you were made, for ~~what~~ you were design'd, }  
 And the great moral end of human kind !  
 Study thyself : what rank, and what degree  
 The wise Creator has ordain'd for thee :  
 And all the offices of that estate  
 Perform—and with thy prudence guide thy fate.—  
 Pray justly, to be heard : nor more desire  
 Than what the decencies of life require :  
 Learn what thou ow'st thy country, and thy friend ;  
 What's requisite to spare, and what to spend," &c. &c.

We have not room for the famous description of the death of the epicure, at line 98 of this Satire ; and candour by no means demands its insertion : since, although Mr. H. has rendered it well, we still think that he is surpassed by one if not by both of his predecessors.

The introductory note to the third Satire contains a judicious exposure of the absurdity of those commentators who would arrange and systematize all satirical and other familiar poems into a regular plan :—but the note on line 7 is an instance, we think, of that refining on and torturing the sense of an author, in order to discover new meanings, of the absurdity of which Mr. H. seems in general to be aware. We see no necessity for introducing a third speaker into the dialogue, in this passage. One of the former youthful companions (the *blandi comites*) of the poet, and he himself, are the only persons who are necessary for carrying on the conversation of this little scene.—We cannot help smiling also 'at the ease' with which Mr. H. supposes the letters *Que nimis* might be changed by a careless transcriber in to *Queritur*, page 99. This is in the true conjectural spirit of a commentator.—In what he says in the next note, about Rupert's Juvenal, we coincide, as far as he blames that catch-penny farrago of old remarks and references : but we can bestow no praise on the borrowed copiousness of either.

On the words "*detonsa juventus*," line 54, Mr. H. gives us an agreeable extract from the life of Colonel Hutchinson. It is strange to observe the distinctions arising from the cut of the hair in all ages and countries. On this subject, many curious collections have been made : but much might yet be added to the stock of entertainment and information which it has afforded. We wish that Sterne had fully discussed the matter in his chapter on Whiskers.

Neither in the notes nor in the text of Mr. H.'s translation of the 4th Satire, (the subject of which is partly derived from a dialogue of Socrates with Alcibiades in Plato,) do we see  
 any



any thing worth extracting. It is indeed the least interesting Satire in Persius ; though some of our young statesmen might read it with advantage, and the precept implied in the following couplet of Brewster,

“ Into themselves how few, how few descend,  
And act at home the free impartial friend! ”

is worthy of universal inculcation.—The conjectural meaning assigned by Mr. H. to the words “ *multa vibice flagellas*,” could be admissible only in the interpretation of a writer who uses terms in such unauthorized and figurative senses as Persius.—We much approve of Mr. H.’s delicacy in giving an ambiguous expression to the beastly allusions in this Satire.

We now come to the most pleasing and most poetical of the works of Persius. Indeed, we scarcely know any passage in any poet that is superior to his address to his tutor. It speaks such an excellence of disposition, such a true taste for the purest and most philosophical enjoyments, such a warmth of friendship, and such a tenderness of remembrance, that we are ready to apply to Persius in this instance what Ovid applies to a very different writer,

“ *Quis valet à lecto durus discedere ?* ”

We must present our readers with the whole of Mr. Howes’s version of these justly celebrated lines :

‘ Soon as I laid my guardian Purple down,  
And trembling left it for the manly Gown ;—  
When from my neck the glittering Ball unstrung,  
Now sacred to the cinctured Lares hung —  
When joyous comrades summon’d me away  
To frantic revels and voluptuous play ;—  
When the white Boss, that knits the parting fold,  
Gave me to range Suburra uncontroul’d ;—  
When Life’s ambiguous path divides in two,  
And heedless steps the flowery way pursue ;  
To *You* I went the sheltering wing to share,  
And gladly courted your parental care.  
My tender years you to your bosom bore,  
And gently foster’d with Socratic lore.  
Then did the rule of right by you applied,  
Straighten those morals that were warp’d aside ;  
To you and Reason bow’d my willing soul,  
Proud of the yoke and glorying in controul ;  
And moulded to the form your wisdom plann’d,  
Took all its features from your plastic hand.  
Oft I remember to have worn away  
With you, well-pleased, the live long summer’s day :  
And oft the twilight hour from feasts I stole,  
To share with you the banquet of the soul :

As if we sciss'd and to labour rose;  
 Our toil was one, and one was our repose;  
 Together now we plied the task, and now  
 With frugal fare relax'd the serious brow.'

This, on the whole, we consider as very creditably translated, but it certainly wants the glow and genuine beauty of poetry. The line 'when life's ambiguous path *divides in two*' unfortunately reminds us of that famous specimen of the bathos,

"Divide and part the sever'd world in two!"

but this is a trifling fault. Dryden has taken very little pains with the passage; while Brewster, to our judgment, has rendered it beautifully indeed:—but even on Brewster's version improvements might be made, particularly on the four lines beginning "Priviledg'd now," which are very careless in expression and measure.

To the well-known passage on Procrastination, Mr. H. has done justice: but our limits will not allow the insertion of it. Dryden's concluding couplet has never been exceeded:

"Who, like the hindmost chariot-wheels, are curst  
 Still to pursue, but ne'er to reach the first."

In the notes to this Satire, we have a translation of the few spirited lines of Horace, beginning "*Neque enim quivis horrentia pilis*," &c.; and, as Mr. Howes proposes to publish a translation of the Satires of Horace, we advise him to *resinge* these lines—

'The bristling squadron's bright array,'  
 ————— 'the battle's bray.'

'The Gaul's pale corse,' at the conclusion of a line, and the 'stricken Parthian,' (not "stricken in years," we conclude,) are all bad. 'Stricken Parthian' is a vile phrase;—vile as 'moleb'd Queen.' The translation of *Cur me querelis*, &c. is better: but we cannot agree with Mr. H. that Horace's sincere affection for Mæcenas admits of any possible doubt. We believe it to have been quite as firm as the love of Persius for Cornutus. Such calculations, however, are fitter to excite ridicule than controversy.

Mr. H. observes that Dryden has made strange work of the passage (line 104.), "*Tibi recto vivere talo*," &c. by attaching modern ideas to antient words. The only modern idea (and indeed it is sufficiently *outré*, unless we think that the Roman hucksters and higglers, the *fracto mutantes sulphura vitro*, will countenance Dryden's English Tinker, though his allusion is at all events foreign to the passage,) is found in the following lines;

"Or

"Or by the sound to judge of gold and brass,  
What piece is Tinker's metal, what will pass."

We have no doubt that "the Tinker" was suggested by a word in the original. So odd is the association of ideas, (as Whiter has excellently shewn in his commentary on "As you like it,") particularly in men of quick and creative imaginations;

"*Ne qua subarato mendosum tinniat æuro.*"

We are, however, in this guess, exposed perhaps to the ridicule which we thought Mr. H. deserved above.

Mr. Howes might more justly have censured Dryden for leaving out several of the antient allusions, or generalizing them in too careless a manner. These are the prominent defects of almost all his translations, except those from Lucretius, an author whom he has made peculiarly his own, in the glorious passages which he has translated. They are the finest versions in our language. The insertion of unauthorized and modern ideas is, however, without doubt, another of Dryden's defects as a translator.

The sixth Satire of Persius, though it contains but little poetry, abounds in moral and philosophical reflections on the true use of riches; and it gives us a high idea of the good sense and liberality of the author. We think that Mr. H. has here been rather careless in his translation; at least, we find more prosaic and tame expressions in his version of this Satire than in any of the others. Some phrases are as coarse as any, if not coarser, to which Mr. H. can object in old Brewster. When we briefly reviewed Mr. Drummond's work in 1798, we expressed the same general opinion of it that we have now given, namely, that it was an elegant production, but deficient in satirical spirit. To Brewster we paid that tribute of just praise, in general terms, which we have now endeavoured to substantiate by particular quotations. It is a pleasing task to render justice to neglected merit; and we hope that we shall in some measure assist in rescuing Brewster from that partial oblivion into which he has so undeservedly fallen. It would give us satisfaction, indeed, to see his volume fulfil the prophecy, "*Multa renascentur qua jam ceciderunt.*"—Of the passages to which we alluded as beneath Mr. H.'s usual style, in his version of the sixth Satire, we may specify these:

'Nothing suits but what's fetch'd over-seas,' line 92.

than which we cannot conceive any thing more vulgar.—  
Again,

'Now of the turfy glebe itself impart,'

than which we never read any thing more unintelligible.

but, by the note, we discovered it to mean,—“now give away some part of your land itself in charity,”—an interpretation in which we coincide with Casaubon and Mr. Howes; rejecting the refinement of Mr. Drummond. The line (127.)

‘Grant I can find no great-uncle’s son’s son,’

has a most curious rhythm; unless we read “grēat-ūnclē, as a dactyl; and then we shall have rather a curious dactyl.

The note on ‘*Nostrum hoc maris experts*’ is very long and very tedious. The result of it is that the words in Horace—“*Chium maris experts*—” (from which these of Persius are imitated,) signify genuine Chian wine, unadulterated with salt-water; which it was the custom to mix with wine, made in imitation of the genuine Chian, in Italy. So “*Nostrum hoc maris experts*” signifies this new philosophy of *ours*, brought from a *foreign* country.—*Nostrum* is indeed oddly joined with *alienum*, which *maris experts* is here supposed to mean: but such an antithesis is no objection to the justness of this interpretation, because Persius loves to join opposite terms, and to deal in all the cramped oddities of expression. How he could imitate Horace so much, and yet differ so widely from him in taste, is surprizing. Mr. Howes is not only candid enough to confess, in several difficult passages, that the giving a forced sense to the words of this author is rather a recommendation to a commentator on Persius, but to address him, (rather contrary to the tenor of the argument for his comparative perspicuity, in Mr. H.’s preface,) in the language of Œdipus to Tiresias,—

Ὁς πᾶσι ἄγαν γ’ αἰνυκτα κἀσαφὴ λέγεις!

Now, as we profess ourselves to be *Davi*, *non Œdipi*, we shall be the more readily excused for joining in the last instead of the first of these opinions of Mr. Howes. Barten Holyday has said that, “in Persius, the difficulty is to find a meaning; as in Juvenal to chuse one;”—and the philological Mr. Harris observes that he is one of the few authors difficult to be “understood, who deserves to be understood.” With less liberality, indeed with great injustice, Dryden remarks that Persius has but two poetical passages. We have shewn many more instances of his poetry. The lines which Dryden quotes are those of the conclusion of the second Satire, on the purity and simplicity of prayer; and those in the sixth Satire on a shipwreck. These last we by no means regard as meriting the high praise bestowed on them; and, as to supposing that Lucan may have assisted Persius in them, Dryden has spoken very carelessly: their conciseness is the very reverse of Lucan’s

can's amplification. Still less can we agree with Addison that Persius is a better poet than Lucan. Surely, if the inflated style of the latter offended the correct and Virgilian taste of Addison, the obscurity and harshness of the former (though Addison pretends not to see these faults,) must have been equally offensive to that master of elegant and perspicuous language.

We shall here take our leave of Persius and his Translator, hoping soon to see Horace introduced to the English public by the same writer: but desiring him to dress his original in the very best and most fashionable suit of clothes, which he can find in the wardrobe of that adroitest *Marchand des Modes* to the ancients, Mr. Alexander Pope.

**A. T. II** *Letters from Canada*, written during a residence there in the years 1806, 1807 and 1808; shewing the present State of Canada, its Productions, Trade, Commercial Importance and Political Relations:—Illustrative of the Laws, the Manners of the People, and the Peculiarities of the Country and Climate.—Exhibiting also the Commercial Importance of Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Cape Breton; and their increasing ability, in Conjunction with Canada, to furnish the necessary supplies of Lumber and Provisions to our West India Islands. By Hugh Gray. 8vo. pp. 406. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

THE interruption of intercourse between our West India colonies and the United States, in consequence of the American Embargo, has fixed, of late years, an increased share of public attention on our remaining portion of the North American continent. The traders connected with Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick have sought to avail themselves of this opportunity to effect a permanent exclusion of the American citizens from our sugar-colonies; and although our Board of Trade has not complied with their applications to the full extent of them, enough has been done to place the United States on a footing of comparative disadvantage. In the volume before us, Mr. Gray comes forwards in the character of an opponent of those States. He has adopted an opinion which is unfortunately current among persons who should be better informed, that it would be beneficial to England to discourage the traffic between our sugar-islands and the American States; and he does not hesitate to recommend compulsory measures for the accomplishment of this favourite object. Having already discussed this question at length\*, it is unnecessary for us at present to make any other observations on it

\* See Monthly Review for May last, p. 70.

than that Mr. Gray, though evidently acquainted with mercantile routine, appears to be a stranger to the principles of trade; and that the projects recommended by him and others, in regard to our sugar-colonies, have never received the countenance of men who are conversant with the real causes of national wealth.

We take early leave, therefore, of Mr. Gray in his capacity of political speculator, and attend him in that of traveller; in which we find him, in no small degree, diligent and entertaining. He has followed the example of other travellers in conveying his remarks in the form of Letters to a friend. After having mentioned the propriety of recording without delay the first impressions excited by a new scene, he proceeds to describe his arrival in the St. Lawrence, and to expatiate, in terms of rapture, on the delightful prospect from Quebec. None of the views which he had seen in the course of his travels on the continent of Europe, nor from Gibraltar, from Bellegarde in the Pyrenees, from Montpellier, nor from Cintra near Lisbon, are to be preferred to this specimen of American scenery. He enlarges also very justly on the commercial advantages of its situation in extent of water-carriage: but he allows imagination to carry him too far, when he contemplates (page 73) the possibility of Quebec being the first city in America; because the length and rigour of her winter, which suspends navigation and almost all other business during half the year, will form an insuperable obstacle to that proud elevation. Of the intenseness of the cold, he gives several very striking examples. Experiments have been made on iron shells, by military men, to ascertain the force of the expansion of freezing water. After having nearly filled the shells with water, iron plugs were strongly driven in at the fuze-hole by means of sledge hammers: but they could never be so firmly fixed as to resist the expanding ice, which sometime afterward pushed out the plugs with great force and velocity, a bolt or cylinder of ice immediately shooting up from the hole. When a plug was used with springs to lay hold of the inside of the shell, so that it could not possibly be pushed out, the force of the expansion split the shell. The great distance to which these iron plugs were thrown shews the amazing power of the expansion of frost; a plug of 2½ lb. weight being thrown 415 feet from the shell.—A different experiment, of a still more remarkable nature, we shall relate in the author's own words. It is mentioned when he is describing his journey to the southward over Lake Champlain, in the depth of winter:

‘ The Lake, though 120 miles long, is not broad, seldom above 10 to 15 miles; and there are a great many islands and headlands, which

which direct the course of the pilot in summer, and the cariole or sleigh driver in winter.

So soon as the weather moderated, we set out on the lake ; and took a guide for some time till we should fall in with some one going our way, or discover a track in the snow to direct us.

Travelling on Lake Champlain is, at all times, really dangerous ; and I would not advise any one to attempt it, if it can be avoided ; which may generally be done by lengthening the route. Instead of going on the Lake to Burlington, or Skeensboro, you may go by way of St. John's, Windmill-point, and Sandbar, to Burlington, and from thence to Skeensboro.

It is very common for sleigh, horses, and men, to fall through the ice, where the water is some hundred feet deep ; and you have no warning of your danger till the horses drop in, pulling the sleigh after them ; luckily the weak places are of no great extent ; you extricate yourself from the sleigh as quickly as possible, and you find the ice generally strong enough to support *you*, though it would not bear the weight of the horses. You instantly lend your aid in pulling out the horses, and in endeavouring to save them, which is done in a manner perfectly unique, and which will require the greatest stretch of your faith in my veracity to believe—the horses are strangled to save their lives.

When the horses fall through the ice (there are almost always two in an American sleigh), the struggles and exertions they make, serve only to injure and sink them ; for, that they should get out of themselves, is, from the nature of the thing perfectly impossible. When horses go on the Lake, they always have, round their necks, a rope with a running noose. I observed that our horses had each of them such a rope ; and on inquiry, found out for what purpose it was intended. The moment the ice breaks, and the horses sink into the water, the driver, and those in the sleigh, get out, and catching hold of the ropes, pull them with all their force, which, in a very few seconds, strangles the horses ; and no sooner does this happen, than they rise in the water, float on one side, are drawn out on strong ice, the noose of the rope is loosened, and respiration recommences ; in a few minutes the horses are on their feet, as much alive as ever. This operation has been known to be performed two or three times a day, on the same horses ; for, when the spring advances, the weak places in the lake become very numerous : and the people whose business leads them often on it, frequently meet with accidents. They tell you that horses which are often on the lake, get so accustomed to being hanged, that they think nothing at all of it.

Pray, tell me, do you not think that this is one of those stories that travellers imagine they may tell with impunity, having a licence ?—Seriously, you are wrong—Though this manner of saving horses, and getting them out of the water, appears extraordinary, yet, I assure you, the thing is very common, and known to every one who has been accustomed to travel on the lakes and rivers of this country during winter. The attempt however does not always succeed. It sometimes happens, that both sleigh and horses go to the bottom ;  
and

and the men too, if they cannot extricate themselves in time. There was an instance of it on Lake Champlain, a few days before I crossed it.

'These weak places of the ice, which prove so treacherous, have been later in freezing, than the surrounding ice. In all lakes, and large bodies of fresh water, there are some places which never freeze; and some which freeze much later than others. It is to be accounted for, probably, in this way. The great body of the water is of a higher temperature than the atmosphere, although the surface has been cooled down below the freezing point, and become ice. The water is constantly giving out its heat to the atmosphere, at some particular place, which thereby is kept from freezing for a considerable time: by and by, when the frost becomes very intense, that place at length freezes, but does not acquire the strength necessary to support the horses.'

Another danger in this sort of travelling arises from the fissures in the ice:

'Large cracks, or openings, run from one side of the lake to the other; some of them, six feet broad at least. I had not proceeded many miles on the lake before I met with a crack; but instead of an opening, I found that at this place the ice had shelved up to the height of several feet; and I learned that this was an indication of their being an opening further on. At the distance of eight or ten miles from this place, I was surprised to observe the driver put his horses to their full speed: I could see no cause for it. In a few minutes, however, I saw the crack or opening, about five feet broad; we were at it in a moment; it was impossible to check the horses, or to stop and consider of the practicability of passing, or of the consequences; the driver, without consulting any one, had made up his mind on the subject,—the horses took the leap, and cleared the opening, carrying the sleigh and its contents with them. The concussion on the opposite side was so great, however, that the runners of the sleigh were broken, and there was a great chance of our being thrown, by the violence of the concussion, out of the sleigh, into the gulf we had crossed: this had very nearly taken place; but I was fortunate enough to regain my seat. By the help of some cords we repaired our damage, and proceeded on our journey. We met with several other cracks, but as they were not in general above a foot or two in breadth, we passed them without fear or accident. When the ice is cleared of snow, which was frequently the case, I could see that it was about a foot in thickness; yet it made a crackling noise as we went along and seemed to give to the weight of the sleigh and horses, as we advanced, which produced sensations not very pleasant.'

Summer-travelling in Canada is performed in a calesh, a vehicle with a single horse and two wheels, without springs or cushions. Neither this conveyance, nor the Canadian *auberges*, can stand a comparison with the comforts of travelling in England;



land : but, rude as they are, Mr. Gray has no hesitation in preferring them to the carriages and inns of Spain, Portugal, and even of France.

The population of Lower Canada, or the country lying along the course of the St. Lawrence, from above Montreal to the sea, exceeds 200,000. Of Upper Canada the most populous part lies in a south-west direction from Lower Canada, ascending the St. Lawrence by its left bank, and occupying the northern shores of Lakes Ontario and Erie. Thirty years ago, this tract was nearly one continued forest : but its climate, in consequence of its southward position, being less severe than that of Upper Canada, it has become of late years a preferable resort in the opinion of settlers. Its population amounts to 100,000, consisting of a mixture of British and Americans from the United States. The inhabitants of Lower Canada are almost all French, being the posterity of the colonists who occupied it when it fell into our possession in 1760. The administration of justice, as far at least as it regards the law of debtor and creditor, is in no better state than in our sugar-colonies. 'A man (page 120) needs not pay his debts here unless he thinks proper ; he has only to entrench himself behind the forms and quibbles of the law, and laugh at his creditors.' In pursuance of the erroneous policy which we have adopted in all our Transatlantic Colonies, a trader in Canada cannot be declared a bankrupt ; his property cannot be put in trust for the benefit of his creditors ; nor can he even be prevented from disposing of it in almost any way which he thinks fit. Neither can he be arrested, unless on oath that he is about to leave the country. If he be sued, he may put off his creditor from term to term by a succession of quibbles ; and if at last judgment be obtained in the lower court, the matter is carried to the court of appeals, where a year or two can easily be wasted : after all this, an appeal may then be made to the King and council, so that one appeal follows another till the patience of the creditor is exhausted ; and the worst is that, during all this time, the debtor is combating the creditor with the money which he ought to have paid to the latter. The consequence of the want of law, and of the disadvantages inseparable from intercourse with a newly settled country, has been that the majority of mercantile adventurers in Canada have failed. Of the English manufactures exported to this colony, no payment has been made for a considerable proportion, but it has been, as in other quarters, deceitfully transferred from the hands of their British owners to those of colonial settlers.

It is said that, previously to our conquest of Canada, the inhabitants were honest and punctual in the performance of their various

various engagements: but that, after the conquest, almost all the persons of the greatest respectability, those who by example or authority were qualified to keep good order in the country, and who knew the people, their prejudices, and their wants, left it and went to France. In their room came English governors and judges, who, though well meaning and just, were strangers to the laws and customs of the people. The lower ranks of the Canadians, and a large proportion of the middle ranks, are immersed in profound ignorance; and to be able to read and write is an attainment not always possessed even by those who aspire to seats in their provincial Assembly.

The constitution lately given to Canada was formed on the model of our own. Upper and Lower Canada, being very different in language and manners, are governed by distinct assemblies; the consequence of which is that the French colonists, being far more numerous in Lower Canada than the English, have a correspondent majority in the legislature. This circumstance gives no small offence to Mr. Gray, who labours hard to shew that these illiterate settlers have no right to a voice in the administration: but we cannot compliment him on a knowledge of the principles of government, any more than of the laws of commerce. He remarks, indeed, with great justice, that we are too eager to introduce our constitution among people who are by no means fitted to receive it, as in the case of Corsica: but, in attempting to point out a remedy for the defects of our Canada-government, he ventures on a subject which is foreign to the occupations of a merchant, and should be reserved for minds that are accustomed to profound investigation.

A similar observation may be made on Mr. G.'s account (p. 158) of the manners of the Indians. It is marked by that precision which is the result of actual observation, but it discovers no traces of an acquaintance with the general history of civilization. A different testimony, however, is due to Mr. Gray when he avoids speculation, and confines himself to matters within the sphere of a merchant. His statements then bear the stamp of care and accuracy, and form documents of considerable importance to those who are interested in Canadian affairs.

After having noticed the perseverance with which the Roman Catholic missionaries in a former age, explored the interior of Canada, submitting to the miseries of savage life, and setting its dangers at defiance, Mr. Gray remarks that the Catholics and Protestants continue to live, in this quarter, on the best terms. They go without scruple to each other's marriages, baptisms, and burials; and they have even been known to make use of the same church for religious worship, one party

partly occupying it in the forenoon and the other in the afternoon. Of the slowness of the Canadians in adopting improvements, the following may be taken as a specimen :

‘ It is only within these very few years that barley has been known in this country. It was introduced by a gentleman who erected a distillery near Quebec. He imported the seed from England, and after much pains taken to overcome the antipathy which the Canadian *bébéant* has to experiments, he succeeded in prevailing upon them to give it a trial. He gave them the seed gratis, and bound himself to pay them a certain sum for each acre they should sow, whatever the produce might be. In this way he overcame their prejudices ; and barley is now very common in all parts of the country.’

The quantity of wheat exported from Canada varies from half a million to a million of bushels. It is what we term in this country spring-wheat, the seed being put into the ground to date as May, and the harvest finished in the beginning of September. It obtains a higher price at Glasgow than at London, because the wheat in the West of Scotland is of such a quality, (in consequence of the wetness of the climate,) as to be materially improved by an admixture of the hard and dry grain of Canada. In Upper Canada, the grain is generally converted either into flour or biscuit before exportation ; the length of the navigation to the coast rendering it an object to compress bulk in order to save freight.

The abstract which we have given will be sufficient to convey to our readers an idea of the plan of Mr. Gray's book, and of the different subjects which he has introduced into it. The arrangement of his materials has been made with care, and his style possesses animation ; so that the author may be said to have performed his task well, except in those places in which he has ventured out of his depth.

ART. III. *Oriental Customs* ; or an Illustration of the Sacred Scriptures, by an explanatory Application of the Customs and Manners of the Eastern Nations, and especially the Jews, therein alluded to. Collected from the most celebrated Travellers, and the most eminent Critics. By Samuel Burder. Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 495. 9s. Boards. Williams and Smith, &c. 1807.

WHAT apology can we make to Mr. Burder for the silence which we have hitherto maintained respecting this second volume of his *Oriental Customs* ? He cannot suppose, after the expressions of approbation which the merit of the first volume drew from us, (see M. R. Vol. 38. N.S. p. 104.) that we should intentionally treat him with neglect. Unlucky accidents

accidents befall us, as well as other literary drudges ; and let him rather believe that his work lurked at the bottom of a parcel, where it had no more right to be than the nettle on the monk's grave, and there escaped that notice which it otherwise would have obtained. Having at last drawn it from its hiding place, we hasten to make some report of its contents.

Of the importance of this undertaking, and of the ability displayed in the execution of it, we have before delivered our opinion with sufficient explicitness, and on the present occasion our duty is rather pleasing than laborious. It is satisfactory to the lovers of Sacred Scripture, to perceive how many difficulties are obviated by this mode of illustration, which extends to objects not within the ken of verbal criticism. In the narratives of Holy Writ, many circumstances will, at first, strike the mere European reader as so highly improbable as even to excite a doubt of their genuineness, but which become perfectly credible after he has obtained an acquaintance with Eastern customs and manners. Not only does this knowledge prove eminently serviceable in removing any suspicion of the truth of the records themselves, but it is of wonderful use in elucidating obscurities. We subscribe to the observation of Dr. Owen, which the present author has taken for his motto : " As a due consideration of foreign testimonies and monuments often gives great light to what is obscurely expressed in the Scripture ; so where the Scripture in these things, with such allowances as it every where declares itself to admit of, may be interpreted in a fair compliance with uncontroled foreign testimonies, that interpretation is to be embraced."

Alive to the momentous nature of the investigation, Mr. Burder pursues it with much assiduity, and has shewn himself to be no unworthy successor of Mr. Harmer. Indeed, we recognize in him a superior degree of classical knowledge ; and those hints which we are led to regard as his own, from their being referred to no authority, are creditable to him as a scholar. If Mr. Burder be at times erroneous in the circumstances which he adduces for the purpose of explanatory application, it ought to be recollected that an European is naturally liable to great mistakes in comparing the customs of different people and of ages so dissimilar to his own, the knowledge of which is altogether collected from books. It should also be remembered that Mr. B. again ranges from Genesis to Revelation ; and that the volume before us contains 800 distinct articles, or notices for the elucidation of texts in the O. and N. T.

Among such a variety of comments, some, as may readily be supposed, have appeared to us more important and striking than

than others, and these we could wish to exhibit : but, when the space for extracts is so limited, we are embarrassed in making the choice. It will be proper to remark, however, that, before Eastern customs are applied to the interpretation of Scripture, it is necessary to ascertain the correct translation of the original. At the beginning of the volume, various quotations are made from the Institutes of Menu to illustrate Genesis iv. 15. *and the Lord set a mark upon Cain* : we are not, however, to understand that a mark was impressed on the body of Cain, but only that a token of security was given to him.—In the note on Exodus i. 16. Mr. Burder has recourse to a new translation of the Hebrew word rendered in our version *stools*. With Dr. Geddes, he takes the word *סבנין* to signify *stone cisterns* or *troughs*, (as in Exod. vii. 19.) and he explains the passage as referring to ‘the vessels of stone in which new-born children were placed for the purpose of being washed,’ and in which, as Geddes adds, “it would be easy for the midwife to stifle them.”—We think that it would not have been amiss if Mr. H. had aimed at a new translation of 2 Sam. v. 6—8. *Wherefore they said the blind and the lame shall not come into the house* ; for we consider the following illustration as unsatisfactory :

‘Mr. Gregory (*Works*, p. 29.) observes, that it was customary in almost every nation, at the founding of a city, to lay up an image magically consecrated, (or talisman), in some retired part of it, on which the security of the place was to depend. The knowledge of this practice he supposes will clearly illustrate the passage now referred to.

‘Several Jewish writers agree that the blind and lame were images, and that these epithets were bestowed on them in derision. Psalm cxv. 5. 7. They were of brass, and are said to have had inscriptions upon them. They were set up in a recess of the fort. Though in scorn called the blind and the lame, yet they were so surely entrusted with the keeping of the place, that if they did not hold it out, the Jebusites said, they should not come into the house : that is, they would never again commit the safety of the fort to such palladia as these.’

*Blind* may be applied to images, but not the term *lame*. The LXX., indeed, render the Hebrew words in question by *οι τυφλοι και οι χωλοι*, and therefore are in favour of the common rendering ; but the whole passage, as it stands at present, is confused ; and if we adopt Dr. Geddes's arrangement, and translate *העורים והפסחים* *sentinels* and *patrols*, the text will be more intelligible : but the authority for this new rendering should have been given. Here, after the utmost critical labour, difference of opinion may remain : but we should

should suppose that most persons would agree that it is not very probable that Moses, if he were the meek man there described, would say (Numbers xii. 3), *Now the man Moses was very meek above all the men who were upon the face of the earth.* Mr. Burder informs us that parallel instances of self-puffing occur in profane writers, and that, 'in Homer, Ulysses calls himself the *wisest* of the Grecians:' but this case is not exactly in point, because, though Homer may thus represent Ulysses as speaking of his wisdom, it is not credible that a very humble man would make a declaration of his own humility or meekness. Is it not a manifest interpolation?—These hints may suffice to prove how necessary it is clearly to understand scripture-passages in the first instance, before we apply to them the sort of elucidations which are here collected.

The extracts which follow are instances of happy illustration, and are reputable to Mr. Burder's critical investigation:

'No. 782. Judges xii. 6. *Then said they unto him, say now "Sibboleth:" and he said, "Sibboleth."*'] In Arabia the difference of pronunciation by persons of various districts is much greater than in most other places, and such as easily accounts for the circumstance mentioned in this passage. Niebuhr (*Trav.* p. 72.) relates something similar to it. "The king of the Hamjares, at Dhafar, said to an Arab, a stranger, *Theb*, meaning to say, *Sit down*: but as the same word in the dialect of the stranger signified leap, he leaped from a high place, and hurt himself: when this mistake was explained to the king, he said, Let the Arab who comes to Dhafar first learn the Hamjare dialect." He further says, "not only do they speak quite differently in the mountains of the small district, which is governed by the imam of Yemen, from what they do in the flat country; but persons of superior rank have a different pronunciation, and different names for things, from those of the peasants. The pronunciation of certain letters also differs. Those which the Arabs of the north and west pronounce as K or Q, at Maskat are pronounced tsh; so that *bukhra kiab* is by some called *butscher tshiab*."—

'No. 1012. Ps. cxvi. 13. *The cup of salvation.*'] It has been observed that the expression, *the cup of salvation*; was at least imitated by the Greeks in their phrase, *the bowl of liberty*. It occurs in *Tryphiodorus*, (*Destruction of Troy*) but is supposed to be borrowed from *Homer*, II. vi. 526.

"These ills shall cease, whene'er by Jove's decree  
We crown the bowl to heav'n and liberty." POPE.

The free bowl, or bowl of liberty, was that in which they made libations to Jupiter, after the recovery of their liberty. *Athenæus* mentions those cups which the Greeks called *γρῦματικὰ κύπελλα*, and were consecrated to the gods in consequence of some success. He gives

gives us the inscription of one of this sort, which was ΔΙΟΞ  
 ΖΕΥΘΡΟΣ.—

‘No 1035. Prov. xxxi. 13. *She seeketh wool and flax.*] It was usual in ancient times for great personages to do such works as are mentioned in these words, both among the Greeks and Romans: Lucretia with her maids was found spinning, when her husband Collatinus paid a visit to her from the camp. Tanaquilis, or Ceia Cæcilia, the wife of king Tarquin, was an excellent spinner of wool. (*Valerius Maximus*, l. x. p. 348.) Her wool, with a distaff and spindle, long remained in the temple of Saugus; and a garment made by her, worn by Servius Tullius, was reserved in the temple of Fortune. Hence it became a custom for maidens to accompany new-married women with a distaff and spindle, with wool upon them, signifying what they were principally to attend to. (*Plin. Nat. Hist.* l. viii. c. 48.) Maidens are advised to follow the example of Minerva, said to be the first who made a web; and if they desired to have her favour, learn to use the distaff, and to card and spin. (*Ovid. Fast.* l. iii.) So did the daughters of Minyas, (*Ovid. Met.* l. iv. f. 1. v. 34.) and the nymphs, (*Virgil. Geor.* l. 4.) Augustus Cæsar usually wore no garments but such as were made at home, by his wife, sister, or daughter. (*Sueton. in Vit. August.* c. 73.)—

‘No. 1038. Eccles. vii. 26. *I find more bitter than death the woman whose heart is snares and nets, and her hands as bands.*] The following insidious mode of robbery gives a very lively comment upon these words of Solomon. The most cunning robbers in the world are in this country. They use a certain slip with a running noose, which they cast with so much sleight about a man's neck when they are within reach of him, that they never fail, so that they strangle him in a trice. They have another curious trick also to catch travellers. They send out a handsome woman upon the road, who, with her hair dishevelled, seems to be all in tears; sighing, and complaining of some misfortune which she pretends has befallen her. Now, as she takes the same way as the traveller goes, he easily falls into conversation with her, and finding her beautiful, offers her his assistance, which she accepts: but he hath no sooner taken her up on horseback behind him, but she throws the snare about his neck, and strangles him, or at least stuns him, until the robbers who lie hid come running in to her assistance, and complete what she hath begun.” *Thervenot*, part iii. p. 41.—

‘No. 1210. Matth. xxiv. 17. *Let him who is on the housetop not come down to take any thing out of his house.*] “It was not possible to view this country without calling to mind the wonderful events that have occurred in it at various periods from the earliest times: more particularly the sacred life and history of our Redeemer pressed foremost on our minds. One thing struck me in the form of the houses in the town now under our view, which served to corroborate the account of former travellers in this country, explaining several passages of scripture, particularly the following. In Matt. xxiv. 17. our blessed Saviour, in describing the distresses which shortly would overwhelm the land of Judea, tells his disciples, “when the abomination of desolation is seen standing in the holy place, let him

who is on the house-top ~~not~~ come down to take any thing out of his house but fly," &c. The houses in this country are all flat-roofed, and communicate with each other: a person there might proceed to the city-walls and escape into the country, without coming down into the street." *Williams's Voyage up the Medjer-ranah*.—

Mr. Harmer endeavours to illustrate this passage, by referring to the eastern custom of the stair-case being on the outside of the house: but Mr. *Williams's* representation seems to afford a more complete elucidation of the text.—

No 1276. Luke xvi. 12. *If ye have not been faithful in that which is another man's, who shall give you that which is your own?* The following custom of the Turks may contribute to our understanding of these words: "It is a common custom with the merchants of this country when they hire a broker, book-keeper, or other confidential servant, to agree that he shall claim no wages: but to make amends for that unprofitable disadvantage, they give them free and uncontrouled authority to cheat them every way they can in managing their business: but with this proviso, that they must never exceed the privileged advantage of ten per cent. All under that which they can fairly gain in the settling of accounts with their respective masters is properly their own; and by their master's will is confirmed to their possession." *Aaron Hill's Travels*, p. 77.

This kind of allowance, though extremely singular, is both ancient and general in the East. It is mentioned in the *Gentoo Laws*, chap. ix. "If a man hath hired any person to conduct a trade for him, and no agreement be made with regard to wages, in that case the person hired shall receive one-tenth of the profit."

¶ The text above cited must therefore, according to these extracts at least, mean, "if you have not been found faithful in the administration of your principal's property, how can you expect to receive your share (as the word may signify) of that advantage which should reward your labours? If you have not been just toward him, how do you expect he should be just toward you?" *Fragments*, No. 309.—

These specimens will speak for themselves. We could have transcribed many others of not inferior merit.

As an Appendix to the article No. V. Vol. I., we find a note, extracted from Lord Teignmouth's Life of Sir W. Jones, in which a forgery of one of the Hindus is detected: a circumstance that corroborates the suspicions of the tricks played on Europeans by the Eastern *literati*, which we have expressed in some of our accounts of papers in the *Asiatic Researches*.

If, as it is very likely, Mr. Burder should be induced to print a second edition of his *Oriental Customs*, we hope that he will arrange his illustrations in one series.

Useful indexes are subjoined.



ART. IV. *Introduction to an Examination of some Part of the Internal Evidence, respecting the Antiquity and Authenticity of certain Publications said to have been found in Manuscripts at Bristol, written by a learned Priest and others in the Fifteenth Century; but generally considered as the supposititious Productions of an ingenious Youth of the Present Age.* By John Sherwen, M.D. 8vo. pp. 137. 5s. Boards. Bath, Meyler; London, Longman and Co. 1809.

“WE never thought to hear thee speak again,” Rowley! and our wish, most assuredly, was “father to that thought?”—but we shall now cease to hope that any controversy can ever be settled; and we shall remember, on all future occasions, the strong language of Johnson to Farmer, when the latter told him that some advocates for Shakspeare’s learning still held out, “Aye, Sir, the muscles will quiver, when the soul has departed.”

Mr. Tyrwhitt’s vindication of his appendix, considered as a minute and particular reply to every material argument of Dean Milles and Jacob Bryant in favour of Rowley, seemed to us finally decisive of the question; or, if anything remained unanswered in the tracts of Mr. T.’s adversaries, this was fully confuted by the luminous Inquiry of Mr. Warton, and exposed with all the combined force of wit and reasoning by the Cursory Observations of Mr. Malone. These ample and irrefragable testimonies in favour of Chatterton were still farther strengthened (if farther strength could be added to them) by the publication of his *Miscellanies* in 1803; and by the concluding remarks of one of his editors. The argument from incapacity has been absolutely overturned by the accumulated mass of evidence, presented in those *Miscellanies*, of Chatterton’s knowledge of antiquities and the old English language; and by that bright effulgence of genius which they occasionally display through the cloud of distress, hurry, agitation, and indigence, which, during the few months of his stay in London, hung heavy on the proud spirit of this unhappy boy. His residence at Bristol was comparatively a scene of comfort and tranquillity; and if we consider what he wrote in the few months abovementioned, in such an alternation of hopes and fears as then oppressed him, we shall cease to wonder at his producing the whole of Rowley’s Poems in a year and half, when the larger part of every day was uninterruptedly at his own disposal, and when he stole many hours from the night. Those who contend against the possibility of his composing so much, in so short a time, forget the rapidity of composition that was necessary for the production of his other numerous works. Those, also, who argue against him from the superior ex-

cellence of Rowley, forget that the treasures of antient lore had been open to Chatterton from the days of childhood,—that this was his favourite study, this his chief practice, to imitate the language of antiquity;—and, we may ask Mr. Whiter, why not the customs and manners also of antiquity? They forget too that he had one uniform object in view, the adaptation of his style (in which, however, he is allowed to have partly, nay greatly, failed,) to the æra in which he placed his imaginary Poet: an object at all events likely to confine his attention and rouse his genius. That he found some records relating to the principal characters of his fictitious poetical coterie, we can have no doubt:—but that Rowley and his companions in the middle of the fifteenth century had, by anticipation, written as harmoniously as Dryden, not in a few passages but throughout three thousand lines, we must be credulous indeed to believe. Of the anachronisms in allusion to things and persons not in existence in Rowley's time; of the plain imitations of modern writers, particularly Shakspeare, Thomson, and Gray, to whom we may add Collins; of the misapplication of antient words, traced to the glossaries which our young Psalmanazar is known to have used; of the invention of many terms; and of the mixture of the language of different centuries; we shall say no more than that all these points are clearly proved in the works above mentioned.—As to Mr. Mathias's argument in favour of Rowley, from Homer's superiority to all poets, preceding, contemporary, or succeeding, till Mr. M. can ascertain the exact distance between the age of Hesiod and that of Homer, we beg leave to say that the latter is not without a parallel in smoothness of versification much nearer his own time, than any poet can be found worthy of comparison with Rowley near the period fixed for his existence.

We do not think that sufficient stress has been laid on the incongruity of Mr. Fhistlethwayte's narrative, with the assertion that Chatterton had not discovered the stores of the trunk at his mother's house till his apprenticeship to Mr. Lambert in 1767. Mr. T. relates that, as early as the year 1764, Chatterton (then in his twelfth year) told him, as a companion at Colston's School, that he was in possession of certain Manuscripts which his father had found in Redcliffe church, and that he had lent one of them to Philipps, their usher. This paper, on asking Philipps, Mr. T. saw; and he is *confident* (although he confesses that they *could hardly make sense of it*) that it was the same poem which was afterward (that is, in 1769) printed in the Town and Country Magazine, under the title of Elinoure and Juga. If he be right, all that we would infer from his testi-

mony is that Chatterton, from his earliest years, conceived an intention of deceiving his school-fellows by the exhibition of his own poems under an antique dress and name; and that he found materials for his imposition, (that is, parchment, and some dates and names in the old deeds at his mother's house,) sooner by several years than it has been supposed. We think, however, that Mr. T. is wrong in his narrative; and as he is very positive in his deductions from his facts, and infers from what he *knew* of Chatterton that he *could* not write the Rowleyan Poems, we are glad to have an opportunity of pointing out more fully, than has yet been done the fallacy of his memory, as well as of his judgment; and we are the less unwilling to do this, on account of the plagiarism in which he has been detected. (See Warton's Inquiry.) Indeed, as to the judgment which almost all his youthful acquaintance formed of Chatterton, it is, like that of Mr. T., evidently erroneous. Pride and reserve are usually mistaken by boys for dullness; and, when transcendent merit extorts applause, some cold detraction from it too often takes place; arising (we fear) from that natural envy and impatience of superiority in a companion, which all who have mixed in the world must have observed and lamented. In a word, the opinion formed of Chatterton's genius by his friends (we are glad to omit Mr. Smith,) was never so happily ridiculed as by Mr. Warton, in comparing it to the opinion formed of Harley's abilities as a Prime Minister by his dancing-master, who wondered "what Queen Anne could see in a man whom he could never teach to make a bow."

One of Chatterton's late editors, in the remarks to which we have alluded, has pursued this subject with all the glow and indignation of kindred genius;—a glow and an indignation which it is impossible not to feel in contemplating the fortunes and the fate of this heaven-born child of imagination, who must be esteemed the second glory of English poetry. The additional letter from Chatterton's sister, published by these editors, throws new light on this controversy, if it can be any longer so termed. It is dated from Cathay, Bristol, October 17th, 1802; and in it she confesses that her brother, after having read the poem on our lady's church as having been written by Rowley, acknowledged that it was his own, but cautioned her to say nothing about it. He also confessed to his sister and his mother that he wrote Sir Charles Bawdin: that is, that he found the argument and versified it. This, we conceive, may have been the case with some of the other poems. Now these facts were not mentioned in Mrs. Newton's letter to Herbert Croft:—on the contrary,—but we forbear to pursue this matter, since the reasons for suppressing such anecdotes were

obvious at the former period.—When we add to the preceding statement, Chatterton's confession of having written the first part of the *Battle of Hastings*;—when to Mr. Rudhall's testimony (taking it from his own relation) of Chatterton's having attempted in his presence to give the appearance of antiquity to the parchment which he intended to produce as the original of the account of opening the old Bridge, we join the testimony of Mr. Gardner, published originally in his *Miscellanies*, 1798, and confirmed in a letter to these editors, dated October 8th, 1802, from Frampton-on-Severn, that he saw Chatterton rub a parchment with ochre, (the scene of the transaction is precisely mentioned,) crumple it in his hand and soil it on the ground, and heard him say “he could do it better were he at home;”—and that at another time he affirmed, “it was very easy for a person who had studied antiquity, with the aid of a few books which he could name, to copy the style of the antient poets so exactly that the most skilful observer could not detect him: no, not Mr. Walpole himself:”—when we lay all these circumstances together, both of Chatterton's ability and of his inclination to deceive, shall we be infidels in his imposition any longer, even on the ground of the external evidence? To crown the whole argument: let any unprejudiced person examine the pretended originals in the British Museum, which in all contain only 124 verses of Rowley's three thousand,—let him see whether the parchments (notwithstanding the arts of Chatterton to disguise them, and of Mr. Barrett to make the writing legible,) do not in many instances betray themselves,—and let him judge whether it would not take the profoundest antiquary in England a much longer time than a year and half, to decypher (even if it were possible at last) such writing as these specimens exhibit, supposing them to be numerous enough to contain three thousand verses?

If, in spite of internal and external evidence of the fraud, it still be asked what motive could Chatterton have for such a fraud? we might reply in the words of Mr. Tyrwhitt;—what motive had Annio of Viterbo, Curzio Inghirami, or Alphonso Cicarelli, for the gross and wanton forgeries of which they stand convicted? Nay, what motive had Macpherson (for those who differ from us on the subject of Rowley we are willing to find opposed on the subject of Ossian,) to father his productions on the son of Fingal? What rational inducement had George Psalmanazar for his conduct? and if we allow motives to be irrational, need we wonder at any thing which they produce? Let us even attend to Psalmanazar himself: “My case” (see his *Memoirs*) “was so intricate and perplexing

perplexing, that it was next to impossible for the ablest heads to have guessed what my motives were, or for what, or by whom, I was thus induced to impose upon mankind. And I am fully persuaded that the merciful judge of all hearts, knowing mine to be actuated only by mere youthful folly and vanity, without any other dangerous or guilty design than the indulging a wild and frantic passion, did in his great pity prevent my going on."—This youthful vanity and pride, this wild and frantic passion, operated no doubt on Chatterton. He felt himself superior to his fellow creatures, as far as they had associated with them:—to deceive and misguide their understanding administered food to his haughty feelings; and how high his ambition, (perverted as it was), at a very early period of his imposture, could soar, is shown by his making one of his first public applications to Mr. Walspole, and thus challenging the notice of a distinguished antiquary, sharpened as Mr. W.'s caution must have been by his having just exposed himself to be deceived by Macpherson. Meeting with a repulse in some quarters, and disappointment as to remuneration in all, Chatterton's pride wrapped itself up in reserve; and the only consolation which he found was in a determined and consistent falsehood, and in resolving (like Junius) to carry his secret to the grave. Meanwhile, his contempt for mankind must have been increased by the admiration which they paid to his supposed antiquities; feeling, as is plain from the confession of his acquaintance and the arguments of his adversaries, that they would not have admired these poems so enthusiastically had they been composed in modern English, and had they been known to be the work of poor Chatterton. His great and radical misfortune was the want of religious principle, which alone would have prevented his frauds and reconciled him to his distresses:—but peace to his manes! The disputed poems having, we think, been fairly proved to be his compositions;

"Nunc non è quibus illis,  
Nunc non è tumultu fortunatæque favillæ  
Nascentur viola?"

PERS.

Let him breathe his own sweetest requiem; and fondly do we wish that he were yet among us to breathe again:

"O sing unto my roundelay,  
O drop the briny tear with me!  
Dance no more at holyday,  
Like a running river be!  
My love is dead,

Gone to his deathbed,  
 All under the willow Tree."

*Minstrel's song in Ella—with the slightest alterations of the old spelling.*

We ought to apologize, perhaps, to our readers, for suffering any modern publication to revive the Rowleyan controversy in our pages: but the present author comes before us with high and just pretensions to notice, having assisted, though in secret, the operations of Dean Milles, Dr. Glynn, &c., against Chatterton, on the original appearance of the poems. Several of his remarks we trace in Milles's answer to Tyrwhitt's appendix; and we have no doubt from this circumstance, and indeed from the author's own testimony, that he contributed largely to the verbal criticisms on the language of these poems, which were published in various Rowleyan essays of the time. We should consider our adversaries as greatly indebted to him for his learning and acuteness in every stage of the contest, did he not conclude his preface to the present inquiry in the following manner:

"It will be the business of these pages to convince, or rather to endeavour to convince them (the Chattertonians) that they have adopted their opinion upon the strength of arguments and reasonings by no means conclusive: I dare not presume to go one step further, and assert that I hope also to convince such readers that the poems are the authentic production of a writer of the 15th century, because the harmonious flow and modern cadence will forever strongly militate against such a conclusion."

We would ask, then, (we, the decided Chattertonians,) who was the author of the poems, if Rowley was not? Let Dr. Sherwen answer us in that remaining part of his examination with which he yet threatens the public. He says that he flatters himself 'that he shall be able to make it appear that every other objection' (but the objection of harmony, which he allows to be *sufficient*,) 'is groundless, although sanctioned by the respectable names of Warton and Tyrwhitt, of Southey and Walpole, Scott and Pinkerton, and adopted by thousands and ten thousands of readers.' Really, when we oppose to these names and these numbers, Dean Milles, Jacob Bryant, (whose learning far exceeds his judgment,) and T. J. Mathias, (even if we believe him to be the chief author of the Pursuits of Literature, that farrago of greek and abuse,) we think that the latter are found wanting in the balance, and that they will not bear the test of close examination.

Among other important matters, Dr. Sherwen maintains (besides his unexpected assertion, at the end of his preface, that he will shew verbal objections to the antiquity and authenticity of these

these poems as Rowley's compositions, which have entirely escaped the notice of Tyrwhitt, Warton, &c.!) that Chatterton, like Mr. Warton, misunderstood the epithet "*brave*." Chatterton interprets this epithet "*strong*," in his Glossary; and Speght says that it is "*ferce*." Warton observes on this difference, "that "*strong*" is a kindred interpretation to "*ferce*;" and he asks, "Is the conclusion here just that Chatterton explained what he did not understand? that he was the copier and not the poet? If an old word would bear a similar, or a secondary meaning, he adopted it, and explained it accordingly. Nor was he, otherwise, studious of exact interpretation."—This we conceive to be an excellent clue to the unravelling of his mistakes in many cases. As to better meanings being found than he intended, we deny the fact in most instances: if some remain, in which the old word which he borrowed from Speght, Kersey, or Bailey, or any of his unknown sources of knowledge, will not bear him out, we must conclude that, like other authors, he was indebted to his commentators for an additional meaning; and that he would have partaken of something like Goldsmith's surprise, (had he been alive to be astonished by his commentators,) at the new sense which Johnson gave to a word in the line,

"Remote, unfriended, melancholy, slow."

See Boswell's Life.

However, at all events, Mr. Warton's errors are not those of Chatterton.

Now what is the amount of the argument from language? Dr. Sherwen has pointed out numerous instances in which Warton and Tyrwhitt are wrong in their interpretation of antient words; and he has shewn that other authors have used such words, previously to Rowley's supposed age, or during the same æra. What does this prove? that Dr. Sherwen is a better glossarist, in many instances already given, and in more that are promised, than Mr. T. or Mr. W.:—but does it prove that Chatterton, in his various studies, in the books to which he had access in the old library at Bristol by the Rev. Mr. Catcott's introduction, in the books which he borrowed from circulating libraries, in all his prose and verse, antient and modern English reading,—does it prove, we say, that he could not find such words as those in question in other books besides the recondite authors who have been mentioned by Bryant, Sherwen, Milles, Glynn, and Co.? Not that we mean to say that he had not seen these books in the old library, or in some of the new libraries, to which he applied: but we mean that he might have obtained the words, which are supposed to imply a knowledge of antiquity from the irregular use of them, during his perusal either of the seventy books which he had read

read when he was thirteen years of age, or from the two hundred which he had read when he was seventeen;—catalogues of each of which he had made; and which catalogues (for the sake of the decided establishment of a curious literary fact) we most heartily wish were in existence.

To return to Dr. Sherwen. We should have been glad if he had produced his promised list of Chatterton's errors, in this volume; for most unfairly does he attack Warton, among other instances, in his 135th page, instead of exposing Chatterton. He says that Warton calls the tragedy of *Ella*, a Danish story. He might have called it so without error:—but when Warton talks of the *Danish* soldiers, and their *Danish* leader *Ella*, can we suppose any thing but a *lapsus calami* to have occasioned the mistake, because, if we advance a few pages, we find him talking of *Ella* and all his host as Anglo-Saxons, and reasoning on that point?—Dr. Sherwen should not cavil; he is capable of better things. Had we room, or had we occasion, we would quote much from his philological remarks:—but, fortunately for our reader's patience and our own, little of it applies to Chatterton. Yet we confess that Dr. Sherwen generally reasons well. His account, too, of the *wraith*, or spectre of the living, like several other passages in his book, is learned and ingenious. We really wish that we could agree with the Doctor, he seems so deserving of friendly acquiescence in his views. If he can produce a list of words from writers who were contemporary with, preceding, or subsequent to Rowley, which have not been employed by other writers, he will only prove Messrs. Warton and Tyrwhitt to be wrong in the use which they have made of some of their examples: but, as we said before, he will not prove in any instance that it is impossible for Chatterton to have met with a word which may be questioned, either in his extensive black-letter reading, or in the glossaries and other books of reference, numerous as they undoubtedly were, which he used; and consequently Dr. S. will prove nothing. We must add to this argument, the invention or rather the alteration of words, in which we believe Chatterton to have indulged.

Dr. S. may perhaps urge that we have not followed him step by step, in his examination of Tyrwhitt's, Warton's, and Chatterton's interpretations. We will then just refer to what we conceive is rather a frivolous inference from a passage in *Ella*, relating to the night-mares, or night-witches, or witches riding in a sieve, or on a broomstick, by night. The passage in *Ella*, (that is, this word in the passage,) is, we think, copied from Shakspeare, Chatterton easily making the noun plural: notwithstanding Dr. S.'s objection; or, if not from Shakspeare, we do not see why it may not have been taken from some old author; nor why Mr. Fuseli, and his abominably



minably absurd and disgracefully extravagant night-mare, should have been dragged in on this occasion: only that Dr. S. himself informs us that many subjects, particularly relating to the elucidation of Shakspeare and our old dramatists, *will* be introduced into this inquiry. We hope that they will not, and sincerely deprecate any farther lucubrations on this or the other subjects specified by Dr. S.; because we feel convinced that they can only tend to the consumption of paper, ingeniously scrawled with certain figures called letters, and blackened by a liquid usually denominated ink, or *atramentum*: — but if Dr. S. *will* appear again before the public, as a defender of the authentic Rowley, we promise to examine every thing that he asserts (impressed as we are with the idea, nay the prophecy, of its being nothing to the purpose,) in the most minute style which our patience can allow. Nay, farther; whenever he mentions Chatterton, (which we must consider as in some degree necessary in an essay exclusively devoted to the examination of his merits,) we also promise to meet him “*alleyne*” or “*ascaunce*”; and although the Doctor may reiterate his assertion that “*ridicule is not the test of truth*,” we will yet rely on his good humour and good manners to excuse us, when we admonish or rather ask him, in the language of Horace,

——— “*Ridentem dicere verum,  
Quid vetat?*”

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ART. V. *The Life of Michel Angelo Buonarroti, with his Poetry and Letters.* By R. Duppa, Esq. Second Edition. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Murray.

OF those artists who have visited that celebrated spot which, at different æras, has been the seat of universal empire over the bodies and the minds of men, and which for ages has been the first school of *virtù*, we are inclined to believe that very few have applied themselves more assiduously in the line of their profession than Mr. Duppa, or have given more incontestible proofs of solicitude to advance the interests of good taste. With the study of those treasures of antient and modern art, which Rome is known to have contained, he has united much attention to the literature of Italy; and we are greatly obliged to him (though we have been unintentionally tardy in expressing our obligations,) for the most complete life of Michel Angelo Buonarroti that has ever been presented to the public: together with his poetry and letters, and numerous sketches, in outline engraving, of his most celebrated works in Painting, Statuary, and Architecture.

When

When it is recollected that the life of this most eminent artist occurs in all our general biographies, the memoir before us may be supposed to be in a great measure superfluous: but, whoever adverts to the scanty materials from which those biographical notices are drawn, and takes the pains to compare them with the narrative of Mr. Duppa, must be fully convinced that the present work is a valuable addition to our literature. When Mr. D. informs us that he has 'drawn up the life and character of Michel Angelo from the most authentic materials,' we can have no doubt of the fact, because ample evidence of it is before us; and when he adds that he has 'written the whole with peculiar pleasure,' we feel the truth of this latter assertion in the pleasure which he has communicated to us throughout the perusal.

In a short preface, Mr. Duppa takes notice of the biographical tracts of Condivi and Vasari relative to his hero; and as the latter has never appeared in English, he has furnished us with same particulars of this author. Vasari's work was published in two volumes quarto\*, intitled, *Le Vite de piu eccellenti Architecti, Pittori, et Scultori Italiani, da Cimabue insino a' tempi nostri: descritte in lingua toscana, da Giorgio Vasari, pittore Areentino. In Firenze, MDL.* Of this publication on the Italian architects, painters, and sculptors, from Cimabue, who was born in 1240, to the year 1550, the account of Michel Angelo occupies no more than forty pages; he being the only living artist included in this edition. Speaking of the compositions of Condivi and Vasari, with reference to the present memoir, Mr. Duppa observes,

'In using the materials supplied by these biographers, I have exercised my own judgment with respect to Michel Angelo's works. From the same data, opinions may be still formed not less authentic, and perhaps with more impartiality, than by contemporary men; but I have not omitted any facts or anecdotes worthy of credit. Besides these authors, I have examined all the writers of that age who could be supposed to throw any light upon my subject, by which means I have corrected some mistakes in Vasari and Condivi, and added to their stock of information.'—

A page is employed on the various modes which have been chosen by different authors in spelling Michel Angelo's name. He himself wrote it in many different ways, and we find four varieties in the signatures to the letters which are copied in the Appendix. Before the system of paper-credit and of funding, indeed, accuracy in spelling proper names was not regarded; and our Shakspeare and Dryden wrote their patronymics differently at

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\* In 1567, it was reprinted in 3 Vols. quarto.

various times. Without, however, dwelling on the known fact that orthography was not reduced to a science in the 15th century, we may account for the varieties which occur in the spelling of Michel Angelo's name by adverting to the different Italian dialects. From the peculiar hiatus of the Tuscan, as Mr. D. remarks, Angelo is always pronounced Agnolo; by the Bolognese, it is called Angiolo; and by the Venetians, who often change the G into Z, Anziolo. Angelo, however, is the Roman pronunciation; and, as this is universally allowed to be the best, the present author has preserved it. From Michel he has dropped the *a*, in order that both words may be pure Italian. As to Buonarroti, the surname of the family which signifies "well arrived," or welcome (*bien venu*), he leaves its orthography doubtful; since, as we have said above, Michel Angelo himself has written it in different ways.

To an ardent admirer of the fine arts, a detail of the several incidents in the life of this most renowned master of the Italian school would be very acceptable; and it would be very easy, by abridgment of the narrative before us, and by occasional extracts, to gratify such a wish. Our pen, however, is restrained by the consideration that the more prominent facts in the history of this illustrious man have been too often related to justify the repetition of them in our pages; and our duty to the public and to Mr. Duppa will be fully discharged, without that minuteness which is essential to a complete biographical sketch.

It is stated in the General Biography, that Michel Angelo reached the advanced age of ninety: but, according to Mr. Duppa's memoir, he did not finish his 89th year; being born in the castle of Caprese, in Tuscany, March 6, 1474, and dying at Rome, Feb. 17, 1563. His passion for the arts was evinced at an early age; and as he was nursed by a stonemason's wife, he facetiously remarked "that it was no wonder that he was delighted with a chisel, since it was given him with his nurse's milk." The superiority of his genius over that of Ghirlandaïo, his master, was presumptuously manifested by his tracing an outline, in a more perfect style of contour, round a figure drawn by Ghirlandaïo. All his biographers notice the sculptured Fawn which introduced him to the patronage of Lorenzo de' Medici, who received this wonderful artist into his palace at Florence, and at his table: but they do not all relate that Piero, the unworthy successor of this prince, employed Michel Angelo to make a statue of snow! The story of the Cupid, which was first buried in a vineyard and afterward dug up and sent to Rome, where it was purchased by Cardinal S. Giorgio, for an antique, at the price of 200 ducats, is well known;

known; and though this deception was acknowledged, it affords a hint respecting *Modern Antiques*, which ought to awaken the suspicion of the virtuosos. How often have the artists of Italy imposed on the credulity of professed men of taste!

Michel Angelo's invitation to Rome by Pope Julius the Second, the high favour in which he stood with this Pontiff, his disgust at being afterward refused admittance to his presence, his sudden flight to Florence, the pressing solicitations of Julius to obtain his return, and the Pope's gracious reception of the artist, are portions of this memoir which place the Pontiff in an advantageous point of view, while they contribute to display his high estimation of that genius which he so warmly patronized. That vanity, however, was combined with his love of the arts, is evident from the first work on which the talents of Michel Angelo were employed on his visit to Rome, viz. the Monument which was intended for Julius himself, after his decease. As the sublimity of this design was not adapted to the old church of St. Peter's, Michel Angelo suggested that such a Mausoleum ought to have a chapel built on purpose for it; and, in consequence, the Pope, after having consulted various architects, resolved on rebuilding St. Peter's itself. 'This,' says Mr. Duppa, 'is the origin of that edifice, which took a hundred and fifty years to complete, and is now the grandest display of architectural splendour that ornaments the Christian world.'

The subsequent reflection, which gives to the architect of St. Peter's the reputation of having undesignedly laid the first stone of the Reformation, must no more be omitted than the description of the Monument, for the reception of which the old St. Peter's was deemed unworthy:

'By those who are curious in tracing the remote causes of great events, Michel Angelo, perhaps, may be found, though unexpectedly, thus to have laid the first stone of the Reformation. His Monument demanded a building of corresponding magnificence; to prosecute the undertaking, money was wanted; and indulgences were sold to supply the deficiency of the treasury; and a monk of Saxony opposing the authority of the church, produced this singular event, that whilst the most splendid edifice which the world had ever seen was building for the Catholic faith, the religion to which it was consecrated was shaken to its foundation.'—

'The Monument, whose base was a parallelogram of thirty-four feet six inches, by twenty-three, was to have been insulated, and to have had four façades surrounded with arched recesses containing statues, and, between them, terms supporting a projecting cornice. On pedestals before them were to have been statues representing the subjugated provinces the Pope had made obedient to the

the apostolic see; and others, personifying the virtues and liberal arts, denoting by their attitudes, that by the death of Julius II. they also became prisoners of Death: no other prince being supposed likely to supply his place with the same fostering care and munificence. Above the cornice were to have been, at the angles, four colossal figures, personifying Moses and St. Paul, and Active and Contemplative Life\*; and above them, a frieze of basso-relievos in bronze, and smaller figures. To crown the whole, two statues, representing heaven and earth, were to support a sarcophagus: the former, expressing joy, on Julius being received into a happier and a better world; the latter, expressing sorrow for his loss. Within the monument, a sepulchral chamber, of an oval form, was to have contained the body of the Pope.—

How little did this Pontiff suspect that, while he was meditating on the grandeur of the church over which he presided, he was sowing the seeds of its destruction; and that the magnificence of St. Peter's church would be a means of shaking the authority of St. Peter's chair!

It would be unjust, however, to insinuate that, in the patronage of the artist, Julius was uniformly influenced by so narrow an impulse as personal vanity. On the return of Michel Angelo to Rome, the monument was suspended for the fresco paintings in the Sistine Chapel, which are thus described by the biographer:

‘The ceiling, which is covered, he ornamented with architectural decorations painted in *chiar’-oscuro*, and separated into numerous divisions. The flat space at the top he divided into nine compartments, each containing a subject from the Old Testament, in the following order.

‘The Deity, dividing the light from the darkness, may be considered as the first in the local arrangement; the second picture represents a personification of the Deity, with extended arms, creating the Sun and Moon, and in the same compartment, creating and fructifying the earth; in the third space the Deity is supposed to be looking down upon the waters, commanding them to be a habitable deep; the fourth is the creation of Adam; in which the omnipotent power is surrounded by angels, extending his right arm as if imparting the vital principle to the created form: the fifth is the creation of Eve; the sixth, the loss of Paradise; the seventh, the sacrifice by Cain and Abel; the eighth, the Deluge; and the ninth represents the inebriation and exposure of Noah. Beneath the *chiar’-oscuro* entablature, which divides the coved from the flat part of the ceiling, are arranged forty-eight infantine figures, standing two and two on pedestals, in diversified attitudes, supporting the cornice as caryatides; and between them are seated twelve colossal figures of Prophets and Sybils, ~~inter-~~

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\* \* From the collection of Mariette, an original sketch for this mausoleum was published by Bottari; by which it would seem, that Michel Angelo once had an intention of placing two figures at each angle.

nely arranged \*. Over the windows, in compartments called lunettes, are fourteen compositions, and an equal number of tablets, inscribed with names expressing the genealogy of Christ; and in triangular spaces produced by the thickness of the wall immediately over the lunettes, are introduced eight compositions of domestic subjects. In the angles at the four extreme corners of the ceiling are represented the miracle of the brazen serpent, the execution of Haman, the death of Goliath, and the treachery of Judith. Besides these various compositions, are ten medallions with historical subjects, and more than fifty single figures disposed of as ornamental accompaniments to the general design. As the most elaborate and minute description of this comprehensive work would only puzzle the mind, and make but a vague and uncertain impression, I have preferred annexing a sketch of the whole ceiling, with the compositions and their argument, as the more satisfactory way of making it better understood by those, who have not been fortunate enough to see the chapel itself †.

From the commencement to the conclusion of this stupendous monument of human genius, twenty months only were employed. So short a time for the completion of so vast a work could hardly be credited, if it were not more difficult to refuse the testimony on which it is supported, than to doubt the fact. Nevertheless the Pope harassed its progress with impatience; for he was an old man; and as his designs, of whatever nature they might be, were always planned with the enthusiasm of youth, so they were hastened with a consciousness of his having no time to lose. To comply, therefore, with the eager desire of his patron, Michel Angelo removed the scaffolding before he had put the last finish to his work; and on All Saint's day, in the year 1512, the chapel was opened; and the Pope officiated at high mass to a crowded and admiring audience.

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\* The Sybils, who were the virgin prophetesses of antiquity, are affirmed by St. Augustin, Eusebius, and the fathers of the primitive church, to have foretold the birth of Christ. LIBYCA is said to have prophesied, "The day shall come when men shall see the King of all living things." CUMÆA, "That God shall be born of a virgin, and converse among sinners." DELPHICA announced that, "A Prophet should be born of a virgin." ERYTHRÆA, who was a Babylonian, is said to have foretold a great part of the Christian religion in certain verses recorded by Eusebius, the first letters of which being put together make the words, JESUS CHRIST, SON OF GOD, SAVIOUR; these verses were translated into Latin by St. Augustin. PERSICA foretold that, "The womb of the virgin should be the salvation of the Gentiles." These were the opinions of the divines and schoolmen of later times, who gave them a place among the prophets of the sacred writings, and this is the reason of their being alternately introduced with them in the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel. Besides these five, believed by the ancients to have been inspired by Jupiter, there were five others of the same credit and authority, ALBANEA, CUMANA, HELLESPONTIACA, SAMIS, and TIBERTINA.

† PAINTING. III.

After

‘After this solemnity, and the public curiosity was gratified, the Pope willingly consented that the pictures should be retouched where he [Michel Angelo] wished to improve them; but, on considering the inconvenience of re-erecting the scaffolding, he declined doing any thing more, and said that what was wanting was not of material importance; the Pope observed, they ought to be ornamented with gold, to give a characteristic splendour to the chapel; to which Michel Angelo replied, “In those days gold was not worn, and the characters I have painted were neither rich nor desirous of wealth, but holy men, with whom gold was an object of contempt.” The repartee was happy, and with respect to his own works, he felt the importance of a truth best known in an age of simplicity, that the mind, and not the material, is the true basis of future fame.

‘The ceiling being finished, he applied himself to make designs and studies for other pictures for the sides of the chapel, to complete the original plan; but on the 21st of February, 1513, the Pope died, and to Michel Angelo his loss was not supplied.’

With all the imperfections in his character, Julius II. makes a more illustrious figure in the history of the arts than his renowned successor Leo X.; whose treatment of Michel Angelo casts a shade on his pontificate, which the modern historian of that period has in vain laboured to remove. As Mr. Roscoe and Mr. Duppa are at issue on this point, it will be necessary to advert to the facts and observations contained in the memoir under review. The reign of Leo X. is an entire blank in the life of Michel Angelo; who, instead of being encouraged in the prosecution of the undertaking in which he was engaged, was sent by the pontiff to explore the new quarries of Pietra Santa, and who, in spite of remonstrances to his Holiness, was continued there for purposes unsuited to his genius, and which a more ordinary man might have executed, viz. to make a road to the sea through mountains, and to carry it by means of fascines and rafts over marshes. ‘The objections of the artist to this measure made, we find, but a slight impression on the Pope, compared with the advantages he anticipated from obtaining so valuable a material in a territory which he could at any time call his own. Michel Angelo was therefore desired to proceed: and it is a mortifying reflection, that the talents of this great man should have been buried in these mountains, and his time consumed, during the whole reign of Leo X. in little else than in raising stone out of a quarry, and making a road to convey it to the sea.’

The biographer is naturally incensed at such an application of sublime talents; and he endeavours to divest Leo X. of much of that credit which he has obtained as a patron of the arts:

‘When Leo ascended the papal throne, the arts in Rome were at their meridian; he found greater talents than he employed, and greater

works commenced than he completed. Those men who have been for succeeding ages the admiration of mankind, Leonardo da Vinci, Michel Angelo, and Raffaello, performed their greatest works, on which their immortality has found a permanent basis, before the accession of Leo X.; and Bramante, the Architect of St. Peter's, died in the second year of his Pontificate. Leonardo da Vinci and Michel Angelo are acknowledged not to have felt the influence of his favours; and for the magnificence of the state-chambers in the Vatican, posterity is indebted to the pontificate of Julius II. The two rooms painted by Raffaello himself, on which, as a painter, his reputation most depends, were nearly completed in that reign.—

‘Whether Leo X. had really a refined taste for works of art, it is not easy to determine; but this is known, that Raffaello made many cartoons of religious subjects to complete the decoration of the Sistine Chapel, which were sent by the Pope into Flanders, to be returned in worsted copies, without any care to preserve the original works which were executed by Raffaello's own hand. No enquiry was made concerning them after the subjects were manufactured in tapestry: by accident, however, seven are yet to be seen in this country, (Cartoons at Hampton-Court,) by which, according to our own judgment, we may still be enabled to estimate those of the Pontiff.’

‘To seek for reasons why Michel Angelo was not more fortunately employed during this reign, might afford a wide field of speculation. The attachment of this Pope to the arts proceeded rather from their importance to the pomp, and shew of power, which was the delight of his mind, than from a more noble feeling of their worth; and it is sufficiently satisfactory, to account for his indifference and procrastination, to know, that wars, alliances, and subsidies, exhausted his treasury; and that the money was spent which was to have been appropriated to the façade of S. Lorenzo. At the death of Leo this part of the building was not advanced beyond its foundation, and the time of Michel Angelo was consumed in making a road, in seeing that five columns were made at the quarry of Pietra Santa, in conducting them to the sea side, and in transporting one of them to Florence. This employment, with occasionally making some models in wax, and some trifling designs for the interior of a room in the Medici Palace, appears to have been all the benefit that was derived from his talents during the whole of this pontificate. As the patronage of the Great often depends upon the character of the man, as well as upon his genius, it has been supposed that the independent spirit which resisted the impetuosity of Julius II. was ill calculated to conciliate the accomplished manners of Leo X.: however this may have been, there appears no evidence that Michel Angelo ever refused submission to his will, or opposed his authority with disrespect; but as the surest way to every man's feelings is through

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‘Upon this point I feel particular regret in differing from the author of the life of Leo X. who, in vindicating the conduct of the Pope, apologizes for Michel Angelo's perverseness of temper: “Genius resembles a proud steed, that, whilst he obeys the slightest touch of the kind hand of a master, revolts at the first indication of compul-



through his heart, it is easy to conceive that he was not likely to have the affections of a prince in whose mind there was no congeniality of sentiment with his own.'

Notwithstanding the apology for Leo that is attempted by Mr. Roscoe, we think that Mr. Duppa makes out his case. Not satisfied with merely reprobating his conduct towards the hero of the memoir, Mr. D. also calls in question the justice of that high fame which he has acquired as a patron of litera-

compulsion and of restraint. Every incident became a cause of contention between the artist and his patron. Michel Angelo preferred the marble of Carrara; the Pope directed him to open the quarries of Pietra Santa in the territories of Florence, the material of which was of a hard and intractable kind. The artist had called on the envoy of the Pope for a sum of money, and finding him engaged, had not only refused to wait for it, but when it was sent after him to Carrara, had rejected it with contempt. Under these discouraging circumstances the proposed building made but little progress. The ardour of the Pontiff was chilled by the cold reluctance of the artist." *The Life and Pontificate of Leo X.* vol. iv. pp. 226.

'That Michel Angelo did not like to be employed in the quarries of Pietra Santa, for marble but little adapted to his purpose when obtained, is very easily to be conceived; but he obeyed. With respect to his contemptuous conduct towards the Pope's envoy, it does not appear that Michel Angelo refused to take the money sent after him to Carrara in any other way, than by refusing to give a receipt, which he said he was not accustomed to do when he received money for others as an agent; and the person who was sent with it, fearing he might give offence by adhering too rigidly to his instructions, left the money without a receipt. "Intese Jacopo Salviati dello arrivo di Michel Angelo, e non lo trovando in Fiorenza gli mando i mille scudi a Carrara. Voleva il mandato che gli facesse la ricevuta, al quale disse che erano per la spesa del Papa a non per interesse suo, che li riportasse, che non usava far quietanza nè ricevute per altri; onde per tema colui ritornò senza a Jacopo." *Vasari*, tom. iii. p. 233.

'Although it should appear that Michel Angelo was not very well pleased with Salviati, yet in this transaction the Pope does not seem to have made any part, and probably never heard of the dispute between Michel Angelo and Salviati's servant, for he continued at Carrara executing the commissions for which he was sent, when he received a letter from Leo to go and examine the newly discovered quarries at Pietra Santa; where he afterward, in obedience to the Pope's will, spent a great part of his time during the Pontificate, notwithstanding it was an employment the most adverse to his feelings. Leo not only kept him in this situation, doing nothing which could be of any service to himself or the state, but refused him permission to make a monument to honour the poet Dantè, which he voluntarily offered to execute free of expence, to be placed in S. Maria Nuova, in Florence.'

ture ; adding that it might be difficult to conceive by what qualities Leo X. was rendered illustrious.

Under the Pontificate of Clement VII., Michel Angelo's celebrated picture of the *Last Judgment*, measuring 54 feet 6 inches by 43 feet 6 inches, was commenced ; and under that of his successor Paul III. it was finished, in the year 1541. This singular composition, which has been viewed by some with disgust, and by others with admiration, has been abundantly criticized. As an effort of art it is in itself a fine school for the painter : but as a whole we consider it as a specimen of bad taste. Mr. Duppa affords a description of it in the following extract : but we cannot allow his assertion that it accords with the gospel account, since Charon's boat is not mentioned by any of the evangelists \*.

' The composition of this picture, in its general design, is conformable to the doctrines and tenets of the Christian faith. Angels are represented as sounding trumpets, the dead as rising from the grave and ascending to be judged by their Redeemer, who, accompanied by the Virgin Mary, stands surrounded by martyred saints. On his right and left are groups of both sexes, who, having passed their trial, are supposed to be admitted into eternal happiness. On the opposite side to the resurrection and ascension, are the condemned precipitated down to the regions of torment ; and at the bottom is a fiend in a boat conducting them to the confines of perdition, where other fiends are ready to receive them. In two compartments at the top of the picture, made by the form of the vaulted ceiling, are groups of figures bearing the different insignia of the Passion.'

We must now pass to that great undertaking, the building of St. Peter's ; a work which Michel Angelo projected and superintended on pious motives, without any remuneration, till within a short a period of his death ; and in the prosecution of which he encountered the malice of narrow and little minds ;

' In the year 1546, San Gallo died, and Michel Angelo was called upon to fill his situation as the architect of St. Peter's. He at first declined that honour, but his Holiness laid his commands upon him ; which admitted neither of apology nor excuse, and he accepted.

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\* The artist was an admirer of Dante, from which poet he drew his ideas. This indeed is confessed in p. 167.

' The Demons in the *Last Judgment*, with all their mixed and various passions, may find a prototype in "*La Divina Commedia*." The figures rising from the grave mark his study of "*L'Inferno, e il Purgatorio* ;" and the subject of the Brazen Serpent, in the Sistine Chapel, must remind every reader of Canto XXV. dell' *Inferno*, where the flying serpents, the writhing and contortions of the human body from envenomed wounds, are described with pathos and horror.'

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the appointment upon these conditions; that he would receive no salary, and that it should be so expressed in the Patent, since he undertook the office purely from devotional feelings; and that, as hitherto the various persons employed in all their subordinate situations had only considered their own interest to the extreme prejudice of the undertaking, he should be empowered to discharge them, and appoint others in their stead; and lastly, that he should be permitted to make whatever alteration he chose in San Gallo's design, or entirely supply its place with what he might consider more simple, or in a better style. To these conditions his Holiness acceded, and the patent was made out accordingly.'

Such were the obstacles, however, by which he was harrassed in this stupendous labour, that he had serious intentions of abandoning it, and of returning to Florence. One of his letters to Vasari on this subject will explain the state of the case, and his own feelings:

"MY DEAR GIORGIO,

"I call God to witness how contrary it was to my inclination ten years ago to undertake the building of St. Peter's, forced upon me by Pope Paul III. Yet if the work had been continued from that time until now with the same earnestness as it was then going on, the fabric would have been made what now I should have had pleasure in returning to; but for the want of money it advanced very slowly and still more so as the parts were laborious and difficult to execute; so that to abandon the undertaking now, would not only be in the highest degree disgraceful, but the loss of my labour for these ten years past, which I have prosecuted with religious zeal. Thus much, in answer to your letter. I have also received one from the Duke, giving me an unexpected pleasure by his condescension and politeness; for which I return to God and to his Highness all the thanks I am able to bestow. I perceive that I depart from my subject, but I have lost my memory, and it is both difficult and troublesome to me to write, for it is not my art. The conclusion however is this, to make you understand what will necessarily follow from my giving up St. Peter's and leaving my residence here: in the first place, it would gratify a nest of thieves, the building would stand a chance of being ruined, and besides, I myself perhaps may be shut up in a prison for the remainder of my life. MICHEL ANGELO BONARROTI."

This letter was written A. D. 1556, when the author was 82 years old. Yet, in spite of the vexations, which assailed him from various quarters, he persevered in his situation till he had established his design beyond the possibility of a change; and he had the happiness of seeing, under his own superintendence, the edifice carried up to the springing of the dome. On this event, he thus writes to Vasari, in the following year, inclosing a sonnet:

"It is the will of God that I still continue to be; and I know that I shall be justly called foolish and out of my mind for making  
sonnets;

sonnets; but as many say, I am in my second childhood, I am willing to employ myself agreeably to my state. By yours I feel conscious of the love you bear me, therefore I wish you to know, that it is my filial desire to rest these my feeble bones by the side of those of my Father, and I pray you to see that it be done.

"For me to leave this place would be the cause of ruin to the church of St. Peter's, which would be a great pity, and a greater sin: as I hope to establish it beyond the possibility of changing the design, I could wish first, to accomplish that end; if I do not already commit a crime by disappointing the many cormorants who are in daily expectation of getting rid of me.

"MICHEL ANGELO BONARROTI."

### SONNET.

"Well-nigh the voyage now is overpast,  
And my frail bark, through troubled seas and rude,  
Draws near that common haven where at last  
Of every action, be it evil or good,  
Must due account be rendered. Well I know  
How vain will then appear that favoured art,  
Sole Idol long, and Monarch of my heart.  
For all is vain that man desires below,  
And now remorseful thoughts the past upbraid,  
And fear of twofold death my soul alarms,  
That which must come, and that beyond the grave;  
Picture and Sculpture lose their feeble charms,  
And to that Love Divine I turn for aid  
Who from the Cross extends his arms to save."

At last, worn out by age, and disgusted by a series of ill treatment, he resigned his office in his 88th year: but he resumed it at the request of the reigning Pope, and obtained a complete victory over his enemies. Soon after this event he was attacked with a slow fever, and terminated his mortal career, as we have before stated, Feb. 17, 1563.

Mr. Duppa subjoins to his well-written narrative an account of the person, constitution, application, acquirements, &c. of his hero, from which it will be expected of us to make at least some brief extracts:

"MICHEL ANGELO was of the middle stature, bony in his make, and rather spare, although broad over the shoulders. He had a good complexion: his forehead was square, and somewhat projecting; his eyes rather small, of a hazel colour, and on his brows but little hair; his nose was flat, being disfigured from the blow he received from a contemporary student, Torrigiano; his lips were thin, and, speaking anatomically, the cranium on the whole was rather large in proportion to the face. He wore his beard, which was divided into two points at the bottom, not very thick, and about four inches long; his beard and the hair of his head were black when a young man, and his countenance animated and expressive.

"In

\* In his childhood he was of a weakly constitution, and to guard his health with peculiar care, he was abstemious and continent; he seldom partook of the enjoyments of the table, and used to say, "that however rich I may have been, I have always lived as a poor man." He ate little, was extremely irregular in his meals, had a bad digestion, and was much troubled with the head-ache; which he attributed to his requiring little sleep, and the delicate state of his stomach: notwithstanding these evils, during the meridian of life, his general health was but little impaired.\*

Of the acquirements of this extraordinary man, the biographer thus speaks:

\* The edition of Dantè he used was a large folio with Landino's commentary; and upon the broad margin of the leaves he designed, with a pen and ink, all the interesting subjects. He also studied, with equal attention, the sacred writings of the Old and New Testament. His acquirements in anatomy are manifest throughout his works, and he often proposed to publish a treatise upon that subject for the use of painters and sculptors; principally to shew, what muscles were brought into action in the various motions of the human body, and was only prevented by the fear, that he should not be able to express himself so clearly and fully as the nature of the subject required. Albert Durer's Treatise on the Proportions of the Human Body suggested to him the usefulness of such a work; the rules and measures there laid down, being, in his opinion, too mechanical and insufficient: he therefore consulted with his friend Messer Realdo Colombo upon the subject, and he sent him the body of a fine young Moor, well adapted to his purpose; he dissected it, and made his remarks: but the result was never published. It is a common opinion, that he entertained some theory upon muscular motion; but I have not been able to make that inference from any passage in his own writings, or that of any contemporary author: Condiotti says he had some ingenious theory in his mind upon anatomy, but what that theory was, he does not himself seem to know, and we are left without data to form a conjecture; but it is evident that he never meant to imply, that the theory, whatever it might have been, had reference to any latent physiological principle, for he previously states, "His knowledge of human anatomy, and of other animals, was so correct, that those who had all their lives studied it as their profession hardly understood the subject so well: *I speak only of that department necessary to the arts of design, which indeed his works evidently demonstrate, but not as to the minutia necessary for a surgeon.*" When Michel Angelo first began to dissect, he was so disgusted with the offensiveness of the study that he lost his appetite; and, conceiving that his powers of digestion were impaired, for a time he desisted, yet was soon dissatisfied with himself for not being able to do, what was every day done by others without inconvenience; he therefore resumed the study, and pursued it to the fullest extent necessary to his profession. Of perspective he knew as much as was known in the age in which he lived; but this branch of knowledge was not then reduced to a science, nor governed by mathematical

principles; and it ought to be observed, in justice to our own country, that that discovery was made in the beginning of the last century (1715), by Dr. Brook Taylor, who has had more voluminous commentaries on his two small pamphlets, than have been written upon any work since his time.—

That such a man as the illustrious subject of this memoir should disregard wealth is not surprising. His maxim was,

*Che'l tempo è breve è'l necessario poco;*

which Goldsmith has neatly expressed in his *Edwin and Angelina*:

“Man wants but little here below;  
Nor wants that little long.”—

His detestation of worthless characters was equal to his contempt of riches, and his attachment to his art may be conjectured from the superlative eminence to which he attained. An extract on this last subject will be more than tolerated;

“Michel Angelo had a great love for his art, and a laudable desire to perpetuate his name. A friend of his regretted that he had no children to bequeath the profits acquired by his profession, to which he answered, “My works must supply their place; and if they are good for any thing, they will live hereafter. It would have been unfortunate for Lorenzo Ghiberti, had he not left the doors of S. Giovanni, for his sons and his nephews have long since sold and dissipated his accumulated wealth; but his sculpture remains, and will continue to record his name to future ages.” In his professional labours he continued to study to the end of his life, but was never satisfied with any thing he did: when he saw any imperfection that might have been avoided, he easily became disgusted, rather preferring to commence his undertaking entirely anew, than attempt an emendation. With this operating principle in his mind he completed few works in sculpture. Lomazzo tells an anecdote, that Cardinal Farnese one day found him, when an old man, walking alone in the Colosseum, and expressed his surprise at finding him solitary amidst the ruins; to which he replied, “I go yet to school that I may continue to learn.” Whether the anecdote be correctly true, or not, it is evident he entertained this feeling, for there is still remaining a design by him, of an old man, with a long beard, in a child's go-cart, and an hour-glass before him, emblematical of the last stage of life, and on a scroll over his head ANCHORA IN PARO, in Roman capitals, denoting that no state of bodily decay or approximation to death was incompatible with intellectual improvement. He established it as a principle, that to live in credit was enough if life was virtuously and honourably employed for the good of others and the benefit of posterity; and thus he laid up the most profitable treasure for his old age, and calculated upon its best resources; for he whose wealth serves only to enrich himself, is insulated as life declines, or surrounded by dependents, none of whom wish the continuance of his being; but he who has cultivated his mind with useful knowledge, and devoted himself to the practice of virtue, makes all nature interested in the length of his days.”—

A quada

A quadruple series of outline engravings decorates this volume, preceded by general observations on taste as connected with the imitative arts; and by an appreciation of the talents of the author's hero in the several departments of sculpture, painting, and architecture. To these outlines, representing the principal works of Michel Angelo, are added useful illustrations.

The first series, on *Sculpture*, contains 1. *Bacchus*, in the Florence Gallery. 2. *La Pieta*, in St. Peter's, Rome. 3. *David*, in the piazza of the Grand Duke of Florence. 4. *Christ*, in the church of *S. Maria sopra Minerva*, in Rome. 5. The monument of *Duke Giuliano de' Medice*. 6. The monument of *Duke Lorenzo de' Medice*. 7. *La Madonna*. (These three in the new sacristy of *S. Lorenzo* in Florence.) 8. 9. 10. *Religion, Virtue, Moses*. 11, 12,\* 13. *Slaves*, the three former making a part, the three latter intended to make a part, of the monument of *Julius II.* in *S. Pietro in Vincolo*. 14. *Christ taken down from the cross*, in the cathedral of Florence.

These sculptures all shew that Michel Angelo possessed no ordinary sublimity of conception: but in none has he rivalled the great masters of Grecian art. Mr. Duppa has justly remarked that he made ideal beauty and aggregate form subservient to expression; while the antients made expression and animated feelings subservient to form.

'The works of Michel Angelo,' (says his critic as well as his biographer,) 'have always a strong and marked character of their own, his thoughts are elevated, and his figures are conceived with dignity; and if he wants the beauty and correctness of the antique, which he certainly does, in an eminent degree, his faults never degrade him into feebleness: when he is not sublime he is not insipid, the sentiment of aggrandizing his subject ever prevails, and however he may fail in the execution, his works are still entitled to the first rank among the modern productions in sculpture.'

He is known to have confessed his inferiority to the antients, by attempting to restore an arm of the *Laocöon* and leaving it unfinished. We shall only add that,

'In the Florence gallery there is a rude block of marble, by Michel Angelo, intended to be a Bust of Brutus, which is more remarkable for this distich by Cardinal Bembo, than for any merit of its own.'—

"DUM BRUTI EFFIGIEM DUCIT DE MARMORE SCULPTOR,  
IN MENTEM SCLERIS VENIT, ET ABSTINUIT."

In the series of plates representing *Paintings*, are 1. *Holy Family*. 2. *Jupiter and Leda*. 3. A large plate of the ceiling of the *Sistine chapel*, comprehending all the subjects painted on the ceiling, with their distribution, and the architectural deco-

\* Nos. 11. and 12. are now in the French Museum at Paris.

ration, which is painted in *chiar'-oscur*. The ceiling measures 125 feet 9 inches, by 43 feet 6 inches; and for the painting on it the artist received only 3000 ducats. As the whole has never before been engraved, this outline of it is a very acceptable present to English artists. 4. *The last Judgment.* 5. *The Conversion of St. Paul.* 6. *The Crucifixion of St. Peter.*

The *Designs* represent, 1. *A groupe of Figures from the Cartoon of the battle of Pisa.* 2. *Christ on the Mount.* 3. and 4. *The Annunciation.* 5. *Fall of Phaeton.* 6. *Ganymede.* 7. *Tityus.* 8. *Baccanalia di Putti.* 9. *Christ with the woman of Samaria.* 10. *Crucifixion.* 11. *Taking down from the Cross.* 12. *Christ scourged.* 13. *Dead Christ.* 14. *Venus and Cupid.* 15. *Holy Family.* 16. *Jerome.* 17. *Virgin and child.* 18. *Jeremiah.* 19. *Christ healing the sick.* 20. *Holy Family.* 21. *Christ dying for our sins.* 22. *Shooting at a target.* 23. *An old man in a go-cart.* 24. *Michel Angelo's ring.*

Of all these paintings and designs, the greatest work of Michel Angelo is the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel:

‘It is (says Mr. D.) in the Sistine Chapel where the poetical feelings of Michel Angelo are fully shewn, and where his genius and imagination are most expanded. The style and cast of the figures have nothing of common nature, but a character of grandeur peculiar to themselves, proceeding from his own mind, without appearing to partake of the previous associations of other men. His Sibyls and Prophets exhibit with variety and energy the colossal powers of his mind; yet great as is the display of invention, which he has there shewn, and which is to be seen through the whole of the ceiling, no part exhibits, or more strikingly marks, the range of his genius, than the smaller domestic compositions in the lunettes, where, to the most homely and familiar scenes, he has given an air of greatness, without extravagance or diminution of their natural simplicity, in a style which defies competition.’—

We come now, in the last place, to the department of *Architecture*; which is embellished with five plates. 1. *The plan of St. Peter's Church.* 2. *Section longitudinally taken as designed by Michel Angelo.* 3. *Side elevation in the state in which it was left by him.* 4. *Side elevation in its present state.* 5. *The front completed in the Pontificate of Paul V. A.D. 1612.*

Great as the design of this most splendid of all Christian churches appears, and much as it has contributed to the fame of Michel Angelo, we cannot help regarding this stupendous edifice as an evidence of his having mistaken his talent. Whoever surveys St. Peter's, and its copy, St. Paul's, with an eye of correct taste, will discover a want of that simplicity which is essential to true grandeur of form. In St. Peter's, the division and subdivision of parts are without meaning; and the architecture of St. Paul's, being in the same style, partakes of this defect. The double story is out of character



for a temple, and is an absurdity of design. Had Michel Angelo studied the specimens of classic architecture, St. Peter's would have had a finer effect; and Sir Christopher Wren would not have been tempted to a vicious imitation. Yet, with all their faults, these temples are noble efforts of art; and though in some respects they may be criticized, they will long continue to be admired.

Returning to Mr. Duppa, in order to make him our parting bow, it is but justice to his liberality to observe that, considering the number of the plates, the excellence of the paper, and the handsome manner in which this volume is printed, he has offered it at a moderate price; and that in every view it is creditable to him as a gentleman artist.

A fac-simile of the hand-writing of Michel Angelo is given, and a portrait of him is prefixed to the title.

ART. VI. *The Travels of Bertrandon de la Brocquiere*, Counsellor and first Esquire-Carver to Philippe Le Bon, Duke of Burgundy, to Palestine, and his Return from Jerusalem overland to France, during the Years 1432 and 1433. Extracted and put into modern French from a Manuscript in the National Library at Paris, and published by M. Le Grand D'Aussy, in the Fifth Volume of the *Mém. de l'Institut*. Translated by Thomas Johnes, Esq. (Printed at the Hafod Press.) 8vo. pp. 336. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co.

TO the account which we gave of the French version of this very curious and interesting relic, in the Appendix to our 47th Vol. N.S. p. 461., we are not now required to make much addition. We shall observe, however, that it presents fewer claims to our attention as a narrative of what the author saw and learned in the countries which he visited, than as a faithful picture of the mind of a brave and gallant courtier, of the rude and simple age in which he lived, and from which so few monuments of this nature have reached us.

Of the competence of Mr. Johnes to give this work an English dress, the readers of Froissart and Joinville, particularly of the former, need not to be informed: but, as this ingenious and learned translator is so deeply versed in French antiquities, it is to be lamented that he had not the original manuscript or a transcript of it before him. We must also be allowed to express our regret, that Mr. Johnes should have confined himself within the precise limits of a translator's province. On the present occasion, we are not illuminated, at every step which we take, by those geographical comments, genealogical deductions, and historical relations which stamp

so much value on the annotations to his Froissart : but a few useful notes are retained from the French editor. That the translation is easy and spirited, our readers will perceive from the specimens which we shall subjoin.

In our notice of the original, we commended the impartiality with which the author describes the Turks. Speaking of them, he says ;

‘ They bear well fatigue and a hard life : they are not incommoded, as I have witnessed, during the whole journey, by sleeping on the ground like animals. They are of a gay, cheerful humour, and willingly sing songs of the heroic deeds of their ancestors. Any one, therefore, who wishes to live with them must not be grave or melancholy, but always have a smiling countenance. They are also men of probity, and charitable toward each other. I have often observed, that should a poor person pass by when they are eating, they would invite him to partake of their meal, which is a thing we never do.

‘ In many places, I found they did not bake their bread half as much as ours. It is soft, and, unless a person be accustomed to it, is difficult to be chewed. In regard to meat, they eat it raw, dried in the sun. When any of their beasts, horse or camel, is so dangerously ill that no hopes remain of saving its life, they cut its throat, and eat it not raw, but a little dressed. They are very clean in the dressing their meat, but eat it dirtily. They, in like manner, keep their beard very neat and clean, but never wash their hands but when they bathe, when they are about to say their prayers, or when they wash their beards and hinder parts.’

On all occasions, the traveller states his preference of the Turks over the Greeks, even alleging that he had found more probity among the former.—La Brocquiere visited Constantinople, but unfortunately his account is very meagre, and will disappoint the reader more than any other part of this volume. We select from it the passages which seem to us most to deserve attention :

‘ Two days after my arrival at Pera, I crossed the haven to Constantinople, to visit that city. It is large and spacious, having the form of a triangle : one side is bounded by the streights of St. George,—another, toward the south, by the bay, which extends as far as Gallipoli, and on the north side is the port.’—

‘ They estimate the circuit of the city of Constantinople at eighteen miles, a third of which is on the land side toward the west. It is well inclosed with walls, particularly on the land side. This extent, estimated at six miles from one angle to the other, has likewise a deep ditch, ‘*en glacis*,’ excepting for about two hundred paces at one of its extremities, near the palace called *la Blaquerne*. I was assured that the Turks had failed in their attempt to take the town at this weak part. Fifteen or twenty feet in front of this ditch, is a false Bray of a good and high wall. At the two extremities,

ties of this line, were formerly handsome palaces, which, if we may judge from their present ruins, were also very strong. I was told they had been destroyed by an emperor, when taken prisoner by the Turks and in danger of his life. The conqueror insisted on his surrendering Constantinople, and, in case of refusal, threatened to put him to death. The other replied, that he preferred death to the disgrace of afflicting Christendom by so great a loss, and that his death would be nothing in comparison. When the Turk saw he could gain nothing by this means, he offered him his liberty on condition that the square in front of St. Sophia should be demolished, with the two palaces. His project was, thus to weaken the town, that he might the more easily take it. The emperor accepted his offer, the proof of which exists at this day.

Constantinople is formed of many separate parts, so that it contains several open spaces to a greater extent than those built on. The largest vessels can anchor under its walls, as at Pera: it has beside a small harbour in the interior, capable of containing three or four galleys.\*—

The city has many handsome churches; but the most remarkable and principal is that of St. Sophia, where the patriarch resides, with others of the rank of canons. It is of a circular shape, situated near the eastern point, and formed of three different parts,—one subterraneous, another above the ground, and a third over that. Formerly it was surrounded by cloisters, and was three miles, as they say, in circumference. It is now of smaller extent, and only three cloisters remain, all paved, and incrustured with squares of white marble, and ornamented with large columns of various colours\*. The gates are remarkable for their breadth and height, and are of brass.

This church, they say, possesses one of the robes of our Lord,—the end of the lance that pierced his side,—the sponge that was offered him to drink from,—and the reed that was put into his hand. I can only say, that behind the choir, I was shewn the gridiron on which St. Laurence was broiled,—and a large stone, in the shape of a wash-stand, on which, they say, Abraham gave the angels to eat, when they were going to destroy Sodom and Gomorrah.

I was curious to witness the manner of the Greeks performing divine service, and went to St. Sophia on a day when the patriarch officiated. The emperor was present, accompanied by his wife, his mother, and brother, the despot of the Morea †. A mystery was represented,

\* Two of these galleries, or porticos, called by our author cloisters, as well as the columns, still subsist. These last are formed of different materials, porphyry, granite, marble, &c.; and this is the reason why the traveller, not being a naturalist, represents them as being of various colours.

† This emperor was John Paleologus II.—his brother Demetrius, despot or prince of the Peloponnesus, — his mother Irene, daughter to Constantine Dragasés, sovereign of a small country in Macedonia.

represented, the subject of which was the three youths whom Nebuchadnezzar had ordered to be thrown into the fiery furnace\*.

\* The empress, daughter to the emperor of Trebisonde, seemed very handsome; but, as I was at a distance, I wished to have a nearer view,—and I was also desirous to see how she mounted her horse; for it was thus she had come to the church, attended only by two ladies, three old men, ministers of state, and three of that species of men to whose guard the Turks entrust their wives. On coming out of St. Sophia, she went into an adjoining house to dine, which obliged me to wait until she returned to her palace, and consequently to pass the whole day without eating or drinking. At length she appeared. A bench was brought forth, and placed near her horse, which was superb, and had a magnificent saddle. When she had mounted the bench, one of the old men took the long mantle she wore, passed to the opposite side of the horse, and held it in his hands extended as high as he could: during this, she put her foot in the stirrup, and bestrode the horse like a man. When she was in her seat, the old man cast the mantle over her shoulders; after which one of those long hats, with a point, so common in Greece, was given to her: it was ornamented at one of the extremities with three golden plumes, and was very becoming.

\* I was so near that I was ordered to fall back, and consequently had a full view of her. She wore in her ears broad and flat rings, set with several precious stones, especially rubies. She looked young and fair, and handsomer than when in church. In one word, I should not have had a fault to find with her, had she not been painted, and assuredly she had not any need of it.

\* The two ladies mounted their horses at the same time that she did; they were both handsome, and wore, like her, mantles and hats. The company returned to the palace of la Blaquerne.

Though the interesting passages in these travels lie very much scattered, and are very brief, yet the discerning reader will find in them much matter for reflection, and a thousand inquiries will suggest themselves to his mind in perusing them: but while he laments the defects of the performance, which belong rather to the age than to the individual, he will be impressed with the good sense, the high honour, the frankness, and the impartiality of the author.

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Macedonia, — his wife Maria Commenes, daughter to Alexis, emperor of Trebisonde.

\* \* These devout farces were then as common in the greek church as in the latin. They were called 'Mysteries' in France; and this is the name given by our traveller to the one he saw in St. Sophia.

ART. VII. *Three Comedies, translated from the Spanish.* Octavo.  
pp. 346. 7s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

Few more striking instances of diversity of opinion in matters of taste can be produced, than the judgments which have been pronounced on the Spanish drama by foreign and by domestic writers. According to the latter, the works of Calderon, Lope de Vega, Solis, Roxas, Mureto, and a few other dramatic poets who flourished under the last three princes of the House of Austria, are to be placed among the most splendid monuments of modern genius; and this sentiment has maintained its ground in Spain almost without opposition from that time to the present, through a period of nearly two-centuries. By foreign critics, however, with the exception of two or three Italian writers, these productions are usually characterized as a tissue of absurdity and buffoonery, of coldness and bombast.

It may not, perhaps, be difficult to assign some of the causes of the high estimation in which the dramatic writers of Spain are held among their countrymen, as well as of the indignities which they have experienced at the hands of strangers. Most of them may indeed be resolved into that predilection for strong and glaring ornament, to which the generality of Spaniards, whether poets or audience, are contented to sacrifice all less obtruding excellences. It was in this spirit that La Huerta, the respectable author of the tragedy of Raquel, retaliating the calumnies of Voltaire, called the delicate and inimitable touches of Moliere, in his *Misanthrope* and *Tartuffe*, "*des platitudes*;" an expression which he borrowed from the language of his adversaries, in order, it should seem, that they might perceive the absurdity of his censure in its full force.—The success of these writers is chiefly to be ascribed to a peculiar brilliancy of thought and expression, joined to great ease and correctness of versification: which constitute merit of the highest order in the eyes of a Spaniard, but which are lost to a foreigner, unless he happens to be intimately acquainted with the Spanish language, and the delicate and peculiar structure of its prosody; and unless he be at the same time able and willing to withdraw his attention from those false and misplaced sentiments, which the desire of eternally dazzling and astonishing unavoidably produces.

Another distinguishing feature, in its origin and effect nearly allied to the foregoing, is the constant succession of new and unexpected situations, into which these writers contrive to throw the personages of their drama; and which, by  
their

their inexhaustible fertility of invention, they are enabled to effect with fewer violations of probability than might have been expected. These incessant changes would distract the attention, and impair the interest, in pieces formed on a purer model. On the Spanish stage, however, we rarely witness the attempt to delineate individual character. Each interlocutor is the representative of a large class, whose habits and feelings are generally described with boldness and truth: but, like the Pamphiluses, the Phædrias, and the Antiphos of Terence, the Don Manuel of to-night is precisely the Don Luis of yesterday, acting in different circumstances. Again, certain characters are considered by these writers as too dignified, and others as too trivial, for scenic representation. Hence a complicated intrigue and a rapid succession of incidents are peculiarly adapted to the dramas of this school, and create a degree of interest for which we might look in vain from other sources.

Moreover, we find an object of admiration and of obloquy, inseparable from the Spanish stage, in the character of the Gracioso, who entertains the audience much in the same manner as the Clown of our old plays; though it must be admitted that the Spanish humourist is generally both more amusing and more correct.

We have been induced to enter thus into the character of the Spanish drama, from a persuasion that the same peculiarities, which have obstructed the success of the original plays, must operate in nearly the same degree to the disadvantage of translations, even when undertaken with the ability and good faith which are displayed in the present volume. The translator has made choice of two of the most popular productions of Calderon, "the prince of Spanish comedy;" to which he has added a piece of nearly equal merit from Solis, better known in England as the historian of the expedition of Herman Cortez. The version is as literal as justice to the spirit of the originals would permit: but these, it must be confessed, are much better calculated for the Spanish stage than for an English closet; and whether the principal object of the translator was to produce a work which should in itself be interesting or amusing to English readers, or to impress them with a favourable or barely a just idea of the merits of these calumniated writers, we think that he has been alike unsuccessful.

**ART. VIII.** *Miscellaneous Works of Robert Robinson, late Pastor of the Baptist Church and Congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Cambridge*: to which are prefixed brief Memoirs of his Life. 4 Vols. 8vo. Demy Paper, 1l. 12s. Royal, 2l. Harlow, printed by B. Flower; and sold by Vernor and Co. &c. London.

**I**N collecting the fruits of genius and of virtue, and in bearing a public testimony to those qualities of the mind and heart which ennoble our nature, a high gratification is afforded to him who is capable of feeling the dignity and appreciating the value of intellectual man. The task, therefore, in which Mr. Flower has here engaged, carried with it in one respect its own reward; and this will partly account for his having volunteered a new memoir of the life of the author of these *Miscellaneous Works*. Every page is written *con amore*, and every page contains the effusions of friendship and of zeal for those principles which the author is known to entertain. Had the unembodied spirit of Mr. Robinson possessed the power of choosing a biographer to promote his fame among the living, where could he have selected a person of more congenial sentiments, and who was more alive to his honour, than this printer and editor of his works? In enthusiasm for the cause of civil and religious freedom, in anxiety to promote liberality of sentiment among christians of different persuasions, and in detestation of priestly arrogance and pride, the present writer and the deceased minister of the Baptist congregation of Protestant Dissenters at Cambridge evidently experienced a common sensation; and Mr. Flower, while professedly employed in portraying the features of his friend's mind, takes care to present us with an ample view of his own mental physiognomy. Indeed, he has so much at heart the enforcement of certain points, that he digresses to them on every occasion; and we shall not be very liable to contradiction, if we say that we have here too much of the colouring of authorship, and that the biographer makes himself too prominent on the canvas.

The narrative, though containing no other incidents of Mr. Robinson's life than those which were supplied in the Memoir of Mr. Dyer, of which we gave some account in *M. R.* Vol. 22. N. S. p. 10, is however in several particulars a more favourable delineation. Mr. Flower is decidedly at variance with Mr. Dyer, (and, we think, on good grounds,) respecting the motive which induced Mr. Robinson to write his *Plea for the Divinity of Christ*; and his friendly anxiety for the fair fame of the deceased had led to laudable exertions. Mr. R. could not have written such a work as a mere trial of skill. He must have been sincere.

REV. JAN. 1810.

F

Having,

Having, in the article just quoted, followed Mr. Robinson through the several events of his life, from his birth at Swaffham, Norfolk, October 8, 1735, to his death, which, according to his wish, took place 'softly, suddenly, and alone,' at the house of William Russel, Esq., near Birmingham, while he was on a visit, June 9, 1790, it will be unnecessary now to retrace his progress from obscurity to public notice. His present biographer has great pleasure in telling us that, though Mr. Robinson was a very useful preacher, and the pastor of a congregation, he disliked the black garb, disclaimed the title of *Reverend*, and was occupied in farming and other secular employments. A large family and a small salary drove him to the latter expedients: but the affected levelling humility of the former singularity is not intitled to the praise which Mr. F. would bestow on it. Things are not here the same as they were in Judea 1800 years ago. A distinct profession is formed by the clergy; and we see no objection to their being designated by a title, and distinguished from the common tradesman by a decent black garb, which reminds the multitude what they are, and themselves what they ought to be in order to avoid disgracing their cloth.

Mr. Flower also seems to be of the same opinion with the man, mentioned by Hickee in his Essay on the Priesthood, who was accustomed to say that "he liked to see a *poor* clergyman;" by which he meant that, if he could have his will, there should never be a *rich* one. Mr. Robinson having married a lady of small fortune, his biographer enters on the subject of rich and poor wives; and because the late venerable Job Orton, knowing the stinted incomes of most dissenting ministers, advised them "to burn for love and money too," according to Hudibras,—or in the pastoral style to look out for *a lamb with a rich fleece*,—a tirade is fulminated against Mr. Orton as a mere Mr. *Wordly-wise-man*; though nothing in the advice warrants the philippic, since he does not recommend any sacrifice of principle or of affection to gold.

Like his former biographer, Mr. F. mentions the flattering offers addressed to Mr. Robinson, for the purpose of inducing him to conform to the establishment; together with the smartness of his reply. It is also specified by both writers that particular applications were made to him by individual clergymen for MS. sermons, to be used by them in the pulpit: but the disclosure of these points of honour does no credit to any of the parties. Surely, names ought not to be mentioned.

For the sake of the references, we shall briefly specify those of the principal works of Mr. R., which are not included in the volumes before us. His *translation of Saurin's Sermons* was reviewed



ed in M.R. Vol. 72. p. 207, &c.; his *Village Sermons*, Vol. 75. p. 77. and Vol. 24. N.S. p. 333; his *Translation of Claude's Essay on the Composition of a Sermon, with Notes*, Vol. 61. p. 100; his *History of Baptism*, Vol. 5. N.S. p. 397; and his *Ecclesiastical Researches*, Vol. 12. N.S. p. 9.—By these and his other publications, he obtained no inconsiderable reputation as an author; and to the notice which his literary talents procured for him, his present biographer is desirous of adding that praise which is merited by the virtues of the heart. Mr. Flower calls us to contemplate Mr. Robinson as a man of great integrity and christian philanthropy, as an enemy to intolerance, as almost an adorer of christian liberty, and above all as an ardent lover of truth and an honest practiser of it, in opposition to Mr. Dyer's insinuations to the prejudice of Mr. Robinson's sincerity. In this part, Mr. Flower is not unsuccessful. As to his literary character, both his biographers agree.

The greatest embarrassment, under which Mr. F. labours, respects the change of sentiment which, on some important doctrinal points, had taken place in the mind of his friend, towards the conclusion of his life. The *Plea for the Divinity of our Lord Jesus Christ, in a pastoral Letter*, was highly applauded by members of the Establishment, and by many of the orthodox Dissenters. This pamphlet increased the author's popularity: but, as he proceeded in his inquiries, he found reason to question the truth of that very doctrine which he had once laboured to defend; and, not being versed in the arts of simulation, his heterodoxy became so conspicuous as to alienate the friendship of persons who formerly were attached to him. This change of sentiment is stated to have been a matter of 'much misrepresentation;' and Mr. F. endeavours to secure to his friend the credit of as much orthodoxy as he can possibly retain: but this part of his essay is very inefficiently laboured. Even Mr. Robinson himself seemed afraid of going the whole length to which his convictions would have carried him. The love of truth in his honest mind was blended, as it is in that of most good men, with other ingredients; and the ties of party, friendship, and reputation restricted him to half-measures, perhaps without his being thoroughly conscious of them. In these delicate circumstances, the self-deception which men are apt to practice, or the power of mind re-acting on itself, makes them oscillate towards principles which they have actually quitted, and induces them to seek some middle path when no middle path is to be found. Mr. Robinson reports himself as 'set free from party:' but we cannot admit this account to be strictly correct. He could not in fact cease to be a *Trinitarian* without becoming an *Unitarian*, though he might disclaim the latter appellation.

If he renounced the Godhead of the Son, he must have believed the Son to be a creature. The learned may endeavour to split hairs, and to make nice distinctions : but they cannot establish an intermediate opinion. They may ingeniously represent Christ to be God, after the manner of Paul of Samoseta, (whose faith, we are told, Mr. R. adopted,) by virtue of the *indwelling* of the Deity : but this is a sort of Godship to which even Unitarians will assent, since they believe that the Divine Spirit without measure dwelt in Christ. Indeed, if indwelling constitutes Godship, the Jewish Tabernacle was at times a *God*. We cannot suppose that this nominal change of sentiment was the whole result of Mr. R.'s examination and reflections. What a cheat must he have passed on his own mind ! It is not, however, unusual with men in his predicament to be straitened in themselves. The letter of Mr. Dunscombe communicates no information ; for to tell the reader that ' Mr. R.'s views were *peculiarly his own*, and that he was *silent* on them,' is to present absolute darkness instead of light. We should be induced to conclude from the evidence before us, that Mr. Robinson died an Unitarian \* ; and had he declared his sentiments more explicitly towards the close of his life, his conduct would have been more manly. We agree, however, with his biographer, that doctrinal points are not of the first importance ; and that

' The man who impartially and fervently, with humility and prayer, seeks after divine truth ; who is determined to sacrifice his dearest worldly interests to obtain and preserve it ; whose life is under its habitual influence ; who proves the sincerity of his profession by his amiable temper and disposition, his care to fill up the duties he owes to his God, to himself, to his family, and to society, with the dignity of a christian ; the luxury of whose life is doing good to others ;—the man who, in short, is constantly persuaded that conformity to the image of his Saviour in this world, is the indispensable requisite to the enjoyment of his presence in a future world ; such a man may rest assured, that the Divine Spirit will *guide him into all truth* necessary for his salvation ; and that whatever may be his views of the various human explanations of controverted doctrinal points, it is impossible he should finally fall.'

Such are the truths which all churches profess ; and of such truths no man needs to be ashamed : but Mr. Flower is aware

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\* In one of his letters, vol. iv. p. 289, he says, however, ' I am neither a Socinian nor an Arian ; I do not know among what class of *heretics* to place myself : sometimes I think I am a Paulianist, or Samosetanian ; for I think Jesus a man in whom the fulness of the Godhead dwells ; and I give him more dignity than they do, who ascribe to him only a third part of Deity : '—but is this short of Socinianism ?

that mere piety and virtue, however exemplary, are not sufficient to secure the fiery bigot's love.

As to this collection of Mr. Robinson's Miscellaneous Works, the editor informs us that he has 'endeavoured to observe a medium between publishing every thing which, without regard to the reputation of the author, may, since his death, have appeared under his name, and omitting any thing he might judge to be worthy of his memory.' The pieces here re-published are Memoirs of the Reformation in France, Remarks on Deism, Reflections on Christian Liberty, &c., Remarks on Morality, Remarks on Saurin's Sermons, Memoirs of the Rev. John Claude, Dissertation on the Ministration of the Word, The Arcana, in eight letters on distinct Subjects, The History and Mystery of Good Friday, Plan of Lectures on the Principles of Nonconformity, A Political Catechism, Plea for the Divinity of Christ, The general Doctrine of Toleration, Sermons on several Occasions,—A Discussion of the Question, *Is it lawful and right for a Man to marry the Sister of his deceased Wife?* answered in the affirmative,—Memorial addressed to the Two Congregations of Protestant Dissenters in Cambridge, A Circular Letter to the Eastern Association, and An Essay on Liberality of Sentiment: followed by unpublished Letters.

Of the Epistolary Correspondence, which occupies more than a third of the last volume, and is printed from original MSS., we must take some notice, if it were only to observe that these letters discover the activity, the ingenuity, the sprightliness, the feeling, and the liberality of the writer. Those which describe his tour to the North of England and to Scotland, in the year 1780, are the most amusing, and would furnish some very pleasing extracts. Having, however, already exceeded our proposed limits, we must beg our readers to be satisfied with a single letter, in which Mr. R. delineates, not picturesque scenery, but traits of his own character and life:

'To Henry Keene, Esq. Walworth.

'OLD FRIEND,

Chesterton, May 26, 1784.

'You love I should write folios: that depends upon circumstances, and if the thunder-storm lasts, it will be so: but what a sad thing it is to be forced to write, when one has nothing to say! Well, you shall have an apology for not writing,—that is, a diary of one day.

'Rose at three o'clock,—crawled into the library—and met one who said, "Yet a little while is the light with you: walk while ye have the light—the night cometh, when no man can work—my father worketh hitherto, and I work."—Rang the great bell, and roused the girls to milking—went up to the farm, roused the horse-keeper—fed the horses while he was getting up—called the boy to suckle the calves, and clean out the cow-house—lighted the pipe,

walked round the gardens to see what was wanting there—went up the paddock to see if the weaning calves were well—went down to the ferry, to see whether the boy had scooped and cleaned the boats—returned to the farm—examined the shoulders, heels, traces, chaff, and corn of eight horses going to plough—mended the acre staff—cut some thongs, whip-corded the boys' plough whips—pumped the troughs full—saw the hogs fed—examined the swill-tube, and then the cellar—ordered a quarter of malt, for the hogs want grains, and the men want beer—filled the pipe again, returned to the river, and bought a lighter of turf for dairy-fires, and another of sedge for the ovens—hunted up the wheelbarrows, and set them a trundling—returned to the farm, called the men to breakfast, and cut the boys' bread and cheese, and saw the wooden bottles filled—sent one plough to the three-roods, another to the three-half acres, and so on—shut the gates, and the clock struck five—breakfasted—set two men to ditch the five roods—two more to chop sads, and spread about the land—two more to throw up muck in the yard—and three men and six women to weed wheat—set on the carpenter to repair cow-cribs, and set them up till winter—the wheeler to mend up the old carts, cart-ladders, rakes, &c. preparatory to hay-time and harvest—walked to the six acres, found hogs in the grass—went back, and sent a man to hedge and thorn—sold the butcher a fat calf, and the suckler a lean one—the clock strikes nine—walked into the barley-field—barleys fine, picked off a few tiles and stones, and cut a few thistles—the peas fine, but foul; the charlock must be topped—the tares doubtful; the fly seems to have taken them—prayed for rain, but could not see a cloud—came round to the wheat field—wheats rather thin, but the finest colour in the world—sent four women on to the shortest wheat—ordered one man to weed the ridge of the long wheats—and two women to keep rank and file with him in the furrows—thistles many—blue-bottles no end—traversed all the wheat-field—came to the fallow-field—the ditches have run crooked—set them straight—the flag-sads cut too much, rush-sads too little, strength wasted, shew the men how to three-corner them—laid out more work for the ditchers—went to the ploughs—set the foot a little higher, cut a wedge—set the coulter deeper, must go and get a new mould-board against to-morrow—went to the other plough—picked up some wool, and tied over the traces—mended a horse-tree, tied a thong to the plough-hammer—went to see which lands wanted ploughing first—sat down under a bush—wondered how any man could be so silly as to call me *reverend*—read two verses, and thought of his loving kindness in the midst of his temple—gave out, "Come all harmonious tongues," and set mount Ephraim tune—rose up—whistled—the dogs wagged their tails, and on we went—got home—dinner ready—filled the pipe—drank some milk—and fell asleep—woke by the carpenter for some slats, which the sawyer must cut—the Reverend Messrs. A. in a coat, B. in a gown of black, and C. in one of purple, came to drink tea, and to settle, whether Gomer was the father of the Celts and Galls and Britons, or only the uncle—proof sheet from Mr. Archdeacon—corrected it—washed—dressed—went to meeting, and preached from, *the end of all things is at hand, be ye sober and watch*

unto prayer—found a dear brother reverence there, who went home with me, and edified us all out of Solomon's song, with a dish of tripe out of Leviticus, and a golden candlestick out of Exodus.—Really and truly we look for you and Mrs. Keene and Mr. Dore at harvest; and if you do not come, I know what you all are.—Let Mr. Winch go where he can better himself. Is not this a folio? And like many other folios? . . . . .

‘ R. ROBINSON.’

When to all this farming activity we add Mr. Robinson's literary pursuits, it will be impossible to report him to have been a *cumberer of the ground*.—A good portrait of him is prefixed to the first volume of this very handsome edition; which does great credit to the author's press.

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ART. IX. *The Remains of Henry Kirke White, of Nottingham, and late of St. John's College, Cambridge; with an Account of his Life, by Robert Southey. 4th Edition, corrected.\* 2 Vols. 12mo. 14s. Boards. Vernor and Co. 1808.*

IN the Temple of Fame, as in the Elysium of Virgil, a peculiar region ought to be consecrated to the victims of a premature destiny. Perhaps, indeed, our commiseration for the *infantum anime* who are snatched from the world *in limine primo*, and are deprived of an existence of which they can scarcely be said to have been ever conscious,

“*Quos DULCIS VITÆ EXORTES, & ab ubere raptos  
Abstulit atra dies, & funere mersit acerbo,*”

however congenial to the feelings of our nature, is in itself unreasonable: while it is impossible to conceive any thing more melancholy than the early dissolution of him who has lived just long enough to feel within him the highest intellectual endowments, and a full conviction that a prolonged life could alone be wanting to his attainment of a permanent and honourable reputation. The interesting subject of the volumes before us has bequeathed to us the most unquestionable proofs not only of rare powers of mind, but of a disposition so gentle, amiable, benevolent, and pious, that our regret for the loss of these talents and qualities is enhanced by the persuasion that they would have been zealously employed in promoting the happiness, the virtue, and all the best interests of his fellow-creatures.

He was born in 1785, at Nottingham. His father, by trade a butcher, designed to bring him up to his own business, but

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\* When we sent for a copy of the first edition of these Remains, we were informed that it was out of print; and the work afterward escaped our recollection.



was dissuaded from this intention by his mother, who quickly discovered, and carefully cultivated, the talents of her remarkable offspring. From his earliest years, he was a most persevering and ambitious student; and, though not so perfectly regular in his school-exercises as to gain the favour of all his instructors, his desultory leisure was devoted to the acquisition of richer and more diversified stores of learning and science, than many reach by constant attention during a life devoted to study. At the age of seventeen, he was placed, as a clerk, in the office of Messrs. Coldham and Enfield, attorneys at Nottingham, and town-clerks to the corporation;—the latter, we believe, the son of the late ingenious and amiable Dr. Enfield. The indulgence of these humane and judicious masters still allowed him many opportunities for pursuing his former studies, for increasing his stock of general information, and for improving his mind by elegant literature: he had access also to a good library:—but he was unremittingly assiduous in his attention to the duties assigned to him, and (according to a letter from Mr. Enfield) particularly ready in acquiring the knowledge of them, as well as very useful in carrying them into execution. During several years he had been, and still occasionally continued to be, a favoured correspondent of some periodical publications, which hold out a laudable encouragement to the exertion of youthful minds, by offering books, medals, and other prizes, to the writers of the best essays on particular theses. The success of these smaller productions tempted him, in conformity to the advice of his friends, to prepare a volume of poems for the press, before he had completed his eighteenth year; in hopes that this publication might, either by its sale, or the notice which it might excite, enable him to prosecute his studies at college, and fit himself for the church: for though he was still attached to the legal profession, and had even indulged the hope of one day rising to the degree of a barrister, an unfortunate and growing deafness destroyed all these views of advancement; and his opinions, which at one time inclined to deism, had now taken a strong devotional bias.

This advice to publish, though undoubtedly conceived in the spirit of kindness, does not appear to us to display judgment equal to its good intention. Few are the circumstances under which we can deem it beneficial for a boy of seventeen to exhibit himself as a poet to the public eye. At that age of sensibility, the powers of imagination should rather be repressed than encouraged, in one who is destined for a grave and laborious profession: the regular prosecution of severe studies should by all means be promoted; and though an ingenious youth can perhaps never be persuaded entirely to refrain from verse-making,

it is surely going far enough to connive at this as the occasional diversion of his leisure, without recommending it as a proper occupation for his serious hours. The literary character ought in no degree to be staked on the crude compositions of an unformed mind, however promising. On the one hand, the vanity of successful authorship may naturally beget a dislike for legitimate labour, and a too easy acquiescence in the degree of proficiency and celebrity which has been already attained : while, on the other, the mortification of publishing a work that failed to obtain praise might produce a still more fatal effect, by plunging the half-expanded faculties in listless and irrational despair.

Where powerful and uncontrollable genius directs the youthful mind to poetry, it will naturally seize on all those animating objects which stir the spirits and fascinate the ardent imagination, at that happy period : but, when the muse is courted rather from a general love of poetry and *belles lettres*, than from the inspiration of high poetical talent, a certain round of ideas is extremely apt to fill up the whole compass of the unvaried song. Church-yard scenes and cypress groves at the dreadful noon of night, silence, darkness, solitude, contemplation, and egotism, with overpowering melancholy, and fast-approaching death,—such is the funereal train that walks in sad procession round the sleepless pillow of the sentimental bard. Without insisting on the perfect exhaustion which this kind of poetry has undergone, particularly in our own language, let us consider for a moment, what probable benefit can be expected from its supplying familiar employment to a boy first starting into active life. If such feelings are not habitual to his mind, but are merely assumed to give effect to his sonnets, can there be a more unpleasing *verbiage* ?—if they are genuine, can we conceive a more deplorable calamity ? On the latter consideration, much of melancholy illustration might be thrown from the memoir now before us : but we decline to do more than suggest a hint to those, who, from the most benevolent motives, extend their patronage to youthful, self-instructed, and necessitous men of talents.

As soon as the little volume of poems was ready for publication, the writer's friends, anxious to procure for it the protection of some exalted female character, successively thought of the late Duchess of Devonshire, the Countess of Derby, and the Margravine of Anspach. It was ultimately dedicated, by her Grace's permission, to the lady first mentioned ; to whom the book, when published, was sent, but from whom no answer was ever returned. Letters were also dispatched to periodical critics, stating the age, the disadvantages, the prospects, and the hopes of

of the author, and requesting an indulgent notice. Our opinion of the poems was given in our number for February, 1804; to which, or to this biographical memoir, where it is reprinted at p. 17, we refer our readers. We commended the talents and application of the young literary advocate, his exertions, and his laudable endeavours to excel; and, thinking that the case privately laid before us would plead strongly in the author's favour with a liberal public, we suggested the propriety of a subscription with a similar statement, and expressed our wish that he might obtain some respectable patron: while we did not disguise our doubts, from the specimen then before us, whether the poems were calculated to win their way by their own intrinsic merit. To us, although we certainly cannot now boast so much impartiality on this subject as we might truly claim at the time of writing the review, it really appears that the expectations of this young man must have been somewhat unreasonably excited by the injudicious encomiums of his friends, since he was severely mortified and disappointed by our remarks. He addressed to us at the time an affecting remonstrance; to which, in our following number, we replied with evident anxiety to heal his wounded feelings, but without deviating from our opinion. With sincere regret, and, we must add, with astonishment, we find that our effort to calm his mind was unsuccessful; and that a critique, which we continue to regard as extremely mild, but by which he thought that his talents were much undervalued, still gave him pain, and was actually considered by him as "an instrument in the hands of Satan to drive him to distraction!" This feeling, no doubt, we share in common with all his readers, though it is heightened in our minds by the circumstance of having been the instruments, yet the innocent and well-intentioned instruments, of inflicting pain on a mind thus profoundly and thus lamentably sensible: but we desire Mr. Southey, who has condescended to direct against us some coarse and common-place language, to be most positively assured that we maintain our former judgment, and that our regret is wholly unmixed with a single feeling of self-accusation, or any consciousness of injustice.

This unfortunate youth persuaded himself that his strong displeasure against us was not awakened by our literary strictures, but that our recommendation to him to make his case public "affected his respectability," and that it represented him as a "beggar." Yet the *avowed object* of his work was, by obtaining notoriety and credit for its author, to insure such a circulation and such a sale as should enable him to raise a sufficient sum of money for a particular purpose! Moreover, in order to obtain such credit and notoriety, applications for patronage and protection



protection were made to ladies of rank, who were perfect strangers to the author: and reviewers, who were equally unknown to him, were requested to speak with indulgence of a work which it was their duty impartially to examine. All these applications, too, are sanctioned and fortified by a *statement of his case*. It is preposterous, then, to contend, that our advice to make that case at once public would have trenched on Mr. White's respectability, or ought to have affected his feelings. As soon would a fair and accurate reasoner adopt Mr. Southey's doctrine, (p. 18,) that however *bad* these poems might have been, 'a good man would not have said so.'

The present volumes have inspired us with unfeigned, though not excessive nor indiscriminate admiration for the talents, and with esteem for the amiable virtues, of Mr. White; and we could not silently submit to the imputation of having, in his instance, indulged in that propensity to wanton, illiberal, and insulting censure, which may perhaps have been sometimes justly ascribed to critics by profession, but to which we trust that we could produce satisfactory evidence of our own determined hostility, not only from the uniform tenor of the *Monthly Review* for above sixty years, but from almost every single number of it. To the principles by which it is our pride to regulate our conduct in this particular, we are confident that neither our observations on the author's poems, nor our answer to his complaint, will appear to any unprejudiced mind to form an exception. On the contrary, we must repeat, on closing this subject, our *astonishment* at the complexion of the article in question having been so darkly represented to Mr. White's "mind's eye," and at our remarks having been termed by him "*extreme acrimony*." Really, at this distance of time, and with much increased sympathy and respect for the deceased author, on re-considering what we then wrote, and the tenor attributed to it by Mr. White and his biographer, we must declare that we understand not our native language if the terms which we used are, in any degree, susceptible of the character which is applied to them. The verse which we quoted was an incontrovertible evidence of the justice of our criticism; and we suspect that Mr. White himself was hence led to perceive the defects of his composition, and to attempt the correction of them afterward, since he says in a letter to Mr. Southey; "I have materials for another volume, but *they do not now at all satisfy me*."

As to Mr. Southey, we have only farther to inform him that his fancied discernment has wholly misled him, in the supposition that the article on *Clifton Grove*, and the reply to the author's letter, were written by different persons; and to whisper in his ear that his own boast of indifference to criticism, be-  
cause

cause he has been reviewed 'above seventy times,' is not very felicitous. If he has, 'seventy times,' received commendation, his indifference is ingratitude; and if he has, 'seventy times,' suffered inefficacious castigation, he can only be likened to the idle school-boy who, having been almost daily punished for his negligence, at length becomes insensible to either pain or shame, and systematically prefers a flogging to amendment.

Soon after the hopes of our young poet had been thus inflamed, they encountered serious disappointment, in the failure of an attempt to place him at the University; and from this cause, as well as from his own prejudicial habits of study, his health became very seriously affected, and he was visited by the apprehension of a consumptive disorder. A letter of introduction, however, to the Rev. Mr. Simeon, of King's College, Cambridge, induced him to visit that gentleman; who received him with kindness, formed a just opinion of his attainments, procured him a sizarship at St. John's College, and promised, with the aid of a friend, to supply him with an annuity of 30*l.* To this provision, his brother Neville generously agreed to add 20*l.*; and his mother was expected to be able to allow fifteen or twenty more, for his maintenance at college. In the mean time, he became a candidate for the bounty of the Elland Society; which, after a long and strict examination, pronounced him to be qualified to receive that bounty, and admitted him on their list of young men to be educated for the ministry. On obtaining this success, he disinterestedly communicated it to Mr. Simeon, and declined the intended beneficence of his unknown friends, as no longer necessary: but that gentleman, with feelings that did him equal honour, obliged him to give up the assistance of the society.

He spent a year of preparation for his academical studies, in the same course of unwearied industry, under the tuition of the Rev. Mr. Grainger, of Winteringham, in Lincolnshire; and in October 1805, he commenced his residence at college. We shall pursue his affecting and instructive history in the words of his biographer:

'During his first term, one of the University scholarships became vacant, and Henry, young as he was in college, and almost self-taught, was advised, by those who were best able to estimate his chance of success, to offer himself as a competitor for it. He passed the whole term in preparing himself for this, reading for college subjects in bed, in his walks, or, as he says, where, when and how he could, never having a moment to spare, and often going to his tutor without having read at all. His strength sunk under this, and though he had declared himself a candidate, he was compelled to decline; but this was not the only misfortune. The general college examina-

examination came on ; he was utterly unprepared to meet it, and believed that a failure here would have ruined his prospects for ever. He had only about a fortnight to read what other men had been the whole term reading. Once more he exerted himself beyond what his shattered health could bear ; the disorder returned, and he went to his tutor, Mr. Catton, with tears in his eyes, and told him that he could not go into the Hall to be examined. Mr. Catton, however, thought his success here of so much importance, that he exhorted him, with all possible earnestness, to hold out the six days of the examination. Strong medicines were given him, to enable him to support it, and he was pronounced the first man of his year. But life was the price which he was to pay for such honours as this, and Henry is not the first young man to whom such honours have proved fatal. He said to his most intimate friend, almost the last time he saw him, that were he to paint a picture of Fame, crowning a distinguished under-graduate, after the Senate-house examination, he would represent her as concealing a Death's head under a mask of beauty.

' When this was over he went to London. London was a new scene of excitement, and what his mind required was tranquillity and rest. Before he left college, he had become anxious concerning his expences, fearing that they exceeded his means. Mr. Catton perceived this, and twice called him to his rooms, to assure him of every necessary support, and every encouragement, and to give him every hope. This kindness relieved his spirits of a heavy weight, and on his return he relaxed a little from his studies, but it was only a little. I found among his papers the day thus planned out :—  
 " Rise at half past five. Devotions and walk till seven. Chapel and breakfast till eight. Study and lectures till one. Four and a half clear reading. Walk, &c. and dinner, and Woollaston, and chapel to six. Six to nine, reading—three hours. Nine to ten, devotions. Bed at ten."

' Among his latest writings are these resolutions :—  
 " I will never be in bed after six.  
 I will not drink tea out above once a week, excepting on Sundays, unless there appear some good reasons for so doing.  
 I will never pass a day without reading some portion of the Scriptures.  
 I will labour diligently in my mathematical studies, because I half suspect myself of a dislike to them.  
 I will walk two hours a day, upon the average of every week.

*Sit mihi gratia addita ad hac facienda."*

Every additional sentence will convey to our readers a more correct idea of the powers of Mr. White's mind, his honourable principles, his amiable disposition, and his affectionate heart, than any statement of ours can present :

' The exercise which Henry took was no relaxation ; he still continued the habit of studying while he walked ; and in this manner, while he was at Cambridge, committed to memory a whole tragedy

tragedy of Euripides. Twice he distinguished himself in the following year, being again pronounced first at the great College examination, and also one of the three best theme-writers, between whom the examiners could not decide. The college offered him, at their expence, a private tutor in mathematics during the long vacation; and Mr. Catton, by procuring for him exhibitions to the amount of 66*l.* per ann. enabled him to give up the pecuniary assistance which he had received from Mr. Simeon and other friends. This intention he had expressed in a letter, written twelve months before his death. "With regard to my college expences, (he says,) I have the pleasure to inform you, that I shall be obliged, in strict rectitude, to wave the offers of many of my friends. I shall not even need the sum of Mr. Simeon mentioned after the first year; and it is not impossible that I may be able to live without any assistance at all. I confess I feel pleasure at the thought of this, not through any vain pride of independence, but because I shall then give a more unbiassed testimony to the truth, than if I were *supposed* to be bound to it by any ties of obligation or gratitude. I shall always feel as much indebted for intended as for actually afforded assistance; and though I should never think a sense of thankfulness an oppressive burthen, yet I shall be happy to evince it, when *in the eyes of the world* the obligation to it has been discharged." Never, perhaps, had any young man, in so short a time, excited such expectations; every University honour was thought to be within his reach; he was set down as a medallist, and expected to take a senior wrangler's degree; but these expectations were poison to him; they goaded him to fresh exertions when his strength was spent. His situation became truly miserable: to his brother, and to his mother, he wrote always that he had relaxed in his studies, and that he was better; always holding out to them his hopes, and his good fortune: but to the most intimate of his friends, (Mr. Maddock,) his letters told a different tale: to him he complained of dreadful palpitations—of nights of sleeplessness and horror, and of spirits depressed to the very depth of wretchedness, so that he went from one acquaintance to another, imploring society, even as a starving beggar intreats for food. During the course of this summer, it was expected that the Mastership of the Free-School at Nottingham would shortly become vacant. A relation of his family was at that time mayor of the town; he suggested to them what an advantageous situation it would be for Henry, and offered to secure for him the necessary interest. But though the salary and emoluments are estimated at from 4 to 600*l.* per annum, Henry declined the offer; because, had he accepted it, it would have frustrated his intentions with respect to the ministry. This was certainly no common act of forbearance in one so situated as to fortune, especially as the hope which he had most at heart, was that of being enabled to assist his family, and in some degree requite the care and anxiety of his father and mother, by making them comfortable in their declining years.

\* The indulgence shown him by his college, in providing him a tutor during the long vacation, was peculiarly unfortunate. His only chance of life was from relaxation, and home was the only place where

where he would have relaxed to any purpose. Before this time he had seemed to be gaining strength ; it failed as the year advanced ; he went once more to London to recruit himself,—the worst place to which he could have gone ; the variety of stimulating objects there hurried and agitated him, and when he returned to college, he was so completely ill, that no power of medicine could save him. His mind was worn out, and it was the opinion of his medical attendants, that if he had recovered, his intellect would have been affected. His brother Neville was just at this time to have visited him. On his first seizure, Henry found himself too ill to receive him, and wrote to say so ; he added, with that anxious tenderness towards the feelings of a most affectionate family which always appeared in his letters, that he thought himself recovering ; but his disorder increased so rapidly, that this letter was never sent ; it was found in his pocket after his decease. One of his friends wrote to acquaint Neville with his danger : he hastened down ; but Henry was delirious when he arrived. He knew him only for a few moments ; the next day sunk into a state of stupor ; and on Sunday, October 19th, 1806, it pleased God to remove him to a better world, and a higher state of existence.'

No apology is necessary for these long transcripts, which few persons will read without painful emotions, or without a sincere wish to do honour to so uncommon a character. What follows will complete his picture, as a self-taught scholar :

' The papers which he left (exclusive of his correspondence) filled a box of considerable size. Mr. Coleridge was present when I opened them, and was, as well as myself, equally affected and astonished at the proofs of industry which they displayed. Some of them had been written before his hand was formed, probably before he was thirteen. There were papers upon law, upon electricity, upon chemistry, upon the Latin and Greek languages, from their rudiments to the highest branches of critical study, upon history, chronology, divinity, the fathers, &c. Nothing seemed to have escaped him. His poems were numerous : among the earliest, was a sonnet addressed to myself, long before the little intercourse which had subsisted between us had taken place. Little did he think, when it was written, on what occasion it would fall into my hands. He had begun three tragedies when very young ; one was upon Boadicea, another upon Inez de Castro : the third was a fictitious subject. He had planned also a History of Nottingham. There was a letter upon the famous Nottingham election, which seemed to have been intended either for the newspapers, or for a separate pamphlet. It was written to confute the absurd stories of the Tree of Liberty, and the Goddess of Reason ; with the most minute knowledge of the circumstances, and a not improper feeling of indignation against so infamous a calumny ; and this came with more weight from him, as his party inclinations seem to have leaned towards the side which he was opposing. This was his only finished composition in prose. Much of his time, latterly, had been devoted to the study of Greek prosody : he had begun several poems in Greek, and a translation of the Samson

**Agonistes.** I have inspected all the existing manuscripts of Chatterton, and they excited less wonder than these.'

The comparison of White with Chatterton, however, which closes this passage, strikes us as a remarkable instance of editorial partiality. The industry of the former might possibly be more astonishing than the same quality in the latter: but in ardent conception, in original imagery, in happy expression, and in that which is more important than all the rest, the power of long sustaining the most arduous flights of poetry, the superiority of the unfortunate bard of Bristow is marked and conspicuous. The praise bestowed by Mr. Southey on the subject of his memoir, for 'uniform good sense, a faculty' as he observes, 'perhaps less common than genius,' and which is said to have been 'most remarkable in him,' appears to us much more appropriate. This is the ruling principle in all his epistolary observations; and many of his later poems, in particular, display a degree of taste, purity, and correctness, which is highly creditable to his understanding. Some of his compositions, too, exhibit an equable and agreeable fluency, with a peculiar sweetness of manner, and occasional elegance of style: but we do not find the proofs of his being fired with high poetic genius; nor can we easily believe that his untimely death has deprived the literature of England of a phenomenon so wonderful as a second Chatterton succeeding the first in the short compass of thirty years. In White, indeed, we may have lost a good scholar, possibly a distinguished mathematician, certainly (we think) a persuasive and observing moralist, and, in every sense of the word, an excellent divine: but as neither the humanity and acuteness of Clarke, nor the energy and sagacity of Johnson, nor even the vast comprehension of Bacon himself, can justly be placed on a level, or nearly on a level, with the divine mind of Shakspeare, so the poetic powers of Kirk White cannot compete with those of Chatterton.

If Mr. Southey had pointed out such among the poems of White as prove him, in the judgment of Mr. S., to be gifted with the very rare endowments which he discerns in him, we should have selected those for the purpose of enabling our readers to form their own opinion: but we are left to our unassisted choice, and shall begin with some verses written at a very early age:

‘ON BEING CONFINED TO SCHOOL

*One pleasant Morning in Spring.*

Written at the age of thirteen.

‘The morning sun’s enchanting rays  
Now call forth every songster’s praise;

**Now**

Now the lark with upward flight,  
Gaily ushers in the light ;  
While wildly warbling from each tree,  
The birds sing songs to Liberty.

‘ But for me no songster sings,  
For me no joyous lark up-springs ;  
For I, confin’d in gloomy school,  
Must own the pedant’s iron rule,  
And far from sylvan shades and bowers,  
In durance vile must pass the hours ;  
There con the scholiast’s dreary lines,  
Where no bright ray of genius shines,  
And close to rugged learning cling,  
While laughs around the jocund spring.

‘ How gladly would my soul forego  
All that arithmeticians know,  
Or stiff grammarians quaintly teach,  
Or all that industry can reach,  
To taste each note of all the joys  
That with the laughing sun arise ;  
And unconstrain’d to rove along  
The bushy brakes and glebe among ;  
And woo the muse’s gentle power,  
In unfrequented rural bowers !  
But ah ! such heart’s-approaching joys  
Will never greet my longing eyes ;  
Still will they cheat in vision fine,  
Yet never but in fancy shine.

‘ Oh, that I were the little wren  
That shrilly chirps from yonder glen !  
Oh, far away I then would rove,  
To some secluded bushy grove ;  
There hop and sing with careless glee,  
Hop and sing at liberty ;  
And till death should stop my lays,  
Far from men would spend my days.

Surely, here is no evidence of extraordinary poetic genius.

From another early production, the ‘ Fragment of an excentric Drama,’ we extract some of the most singular and original couplets that appear to have been ever composed by the writer. It might be deemed ominous of his fate, since it opens with ‘ a dance of the Consumptives,’ who sing a doleful chorus, and vanish, after which ‘ the Goddess of Consumption descends in a sky-blue robe, attended by mournful music.’ The Goddess of Melancholy then points out the beautiful and forsaken Angelina as their joint victim, and CONSUMPTION marks her for her own in these energetic lines :

' In the dismal night air drest,  
 I will creep into her breast;  
 Flush her cheek, and bleach her skin,  
 And feed on the vital fire within.  
 Lover, do not trust her eyes,—  
 When they sparkle most she dies!  
 Mother, do not trust her breath,—  
 Comfort she will breathe in death!  
 Father, do not strive to save her,—  
 She is mine, and I must have her!  
 The coffin must be her bridal bed;  
 The winding-sheet must wrap her head;  
 The whispering winds must o'er her sigh,  
 For soon in the grave the maid must lie.  
     The worm it will riot  
     On heavenly diet,  
 When death has deflower'd her eye.'

A considerable number of similar specimens would have induced us long to hesitate, before we pronounced our opinion on the poetry of this young author: but in fact the above passage is nearly unique. From his ode to Mr. Fuseli, on seeing engravings from that artist's designs, we transcribe the exordium, as an example of the productions of his maturer years:

' Mighty Magician! who on Torneo's brow,  
     When sullen tempests wrap the throne of night,  
     Art wont to sit and catch the gleam of light  
 That shoots athwart the gloom opaque below;  
 And listen to the distant death-shriek long  
     From lonely mariner foundering in the deep,  
     Which rises slowly up the rocky steep,  
 While the weird sisters weave the horrid song:  
     Or when along the liquid sky  
     Serenely chaunt the orbs on high,  
     Dost love to sit in musing trance  
     And mark the northern meteor's dance,  
 (While far below the fitful oar  
     Flings its faint pauses on the steepy shore,)  
 And list the music of the breeze,  
     That sweeps by fits the bending seas  
     And often bears with sudden swell  
     The shipwreck'd sailor's funeral knell,  
     By the spirits sung who keep  
     Their night watch on the treacherous deep,  
     And guide the wakeful Helms-man's eye  
     To Helice in northern sky;  
     And there upon the rock inclin'd  
     With mighty visions fill'st the mind,  
     Such as bound in magic spell  
     Him who grasp'd the gates of Hell,  
 And bursting Pluto's dark domain  
 Held to the day the Terrors of his reign.



Genius of Horror and romantic awe,  
 Whose eye explores the secrets of the deep,  
 Whose power can bid the rebel fluids creep,  
 Can force the inmost soul to own its law ;  
 Who shall now, sublimest spirit,  
 Who shall now thy wand inherit,  
 From him thy darling child who best  
 Thy shuddering images exprest ?  
 Sullen of soul and stern and proud,  
 His gloomy spirit spurn'd the croud,  
 And now he lays his aching head  
 In the dark mansion of the silent dead.

We cannot refrain from inserting one more extract, from  
 an address to Contemplation, which very happily imitates  
 the style of Milton's *Allegro*.

I will meet thee on the hill,  
 Where, with printless footsteps still  
 The morning in her buskin grey,  
 Springs upon her eastern way ;  
 While the frolic zephyrs stir,  
 Playing with the gossamer,  
 And, on ruder pinnas borne,  
 Shake the dew-drops from the thorn.  
 There, as o'er the fields we pass,  
 Brushing with hasty feet the grass,  
 We will startle from her nest,  
 The lively lark with speckled breast,  
 And hear the floating clouds among  
 Her gale-transported matin song,  
 Or on the upland stile embower'd,  
 With fragrant hawthorn snowy flowered,  
 Will sauntering sit, and listen still,  
 To the herdsman's oaten quill ;  
 Wafted from the plain below ;  
 Or the kisher's frequent low ;  
 Or the milkmaid in the grove,  
 Sighing of one that died for love.  
 Or when the noon-tide heats oppress,  
 We will seek the dark recess,  
 Where, in the embowered translucent stream,  
 The cattle shun the sultry beam,  
 And o'er us, on the marge reclin'd,  
 The drowsy fly her horn shall wind,  
 While echo, from her ancient oak,  
 Shall answer to the woodman's stroke ;  
 Or the little peasant's song,  
 Wandering lone the glens among,  
 His artless lips with berries dyed,  
 And feet through ragged shoes descried.

Our account of these volumes ought not to be closed without our stating that, from the variety of their contents, the perusal of them is extremely interesting and agreeable; and we observe, with sincere pleasure, that their popularity is evinced by their having already passed through several editions. The character of melancholy so strongly impressed on the features of the author's face, in the portrait which is prefixed to his works, will be contemplated with corresponding emotions by such readers as are able to appreciate his merits, and can feel for his untimely fate.

*ART. X. Memoirs of the Life and Writings of the Hon. Henry Home of Kames, one of the Senators of the College of Justice, and one of the Lords Commissioners of Justiciary in Scotland: containing Sketches of the Progress of Literature and general Improvement in Scotland, during the greater Part of the Eighteenth Century. 4to. 2. Vols. pp. 848. 5s. 3s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1807.*

THE President De Chevre observed, in his Panegyric on the great Sully, "*C'est pêcher contre le public que de taire la vertu des Hommes Illustres: c'est envier l'honneur que méritent les uns, et ravir aux autres le bonheur de les imiter.*" We subscribe to the truth of this remark, which stands as a motto in the title-page of the *Mémoires* before us; and we would submit to the application of it against ourselves if we were to be silent respecting the present record of so eminent and so worthy a man as Lord Kames. We are conscious even of having partially incurred its censure, by having so long delayed that notice of these volumes, which the celebrity of the subject of them and the respectability of their author ought much earlier to have commanded; but this delay must not be ascribed either to intention or to negligence. It has been owing to private circumstances, from the operation of which we in our literary employment are no more exempt than persons in other situations in life; and which neither propriety would permit nor utility requires us to specify. Thus much, however, we have chosen to say as an excuse for ourselves, and in courtesy to Lord Woodhouselee; from whom this work proceeds, and to whose former publications we have paid that tribute of attention which their intrinsic merit demanded.

The life of Lord Kames was protracted so far beyond the average of human existence, and his active mind was directed to such a variety of pursuits, that we were prepared to expect the allotment of a more than ordinary space to his memoirs; and this expectation was not lessened by our acquaintance with the

the writings of his biographer, who is not accustomed to treat subjects with unsatisfactory brevity. On the present occasion, he has maintained his character for copious discussion, by affording his reader a disquisition on each of the various subjects which successively occupied the pen of Lord Kames. After having apprized us of his Lordship's publications on law, he treats at great length of the history and mode of studying law; and after having noticed the appearance of the "*Elements of Criticism*," he favours us with a commentary on the application of philosophy to criticism, in which he goes back to the days of Aristotle. We are presented with similar researches on the history of man, on agriculture, and on the principles of education, each in their turn; researches which are by no means devoid of interest, and which evidently originate in a desire to convey instruction, but which we think are extended to too great a length. Lord Woodhouselee has been equally liberal in affording us a stock of letters and anecdotes, more or less connected with his subject: but these communications belong to the province of biography, and it is the part only of a fastidious taste to exclude them. The present memoirs will consequently, in this respect, be advantageously contrasted with some meagre narratives, which proceeded several years ago from the same seat of literature. These letters and anecdotes are given by the Editor partly in the text, and partly in a smaller type in the notes and Appendix; a circumstance which we notice for the sake of remarking that, had the latter plan been more generally adopted, the whole would have been equally legible, and the work reduced to much less bulk. The complimentary epistles between Lord Kames and the ingenious Mrs. Montague, though often lively and pleasing, are hardly important enough to be exhibited to the public in what Dr. Johnson would term the "*pomp of wide margin and splendid typography*;" and the writer who, like Lord Woodhouselee, labours with the commendable view of contributing to the diffusion of knowledge, should recollect that it can scarcely be more effectually checked, than by the tax which is imposed on it by booksellers in the shape of expensive editions.

We proceed to offer a brief abstract of Lord Kames's life. His family-name was Home, and he was born in Berwickshire in 1696; and being a younger son, he was sent, after having received a scanty domestic education, to Edinburgh, under indenture to a writer to the signet. He soon relinquished, however, the limited occupation of a solicitor, for the labours of the bar; and having applied with indefatigable zeal to the completion of his education, he was called to the bar in 1724.

He passed in literary study the interval which generally elapses between the entrance into this profession and the acquisition of practice. He became a married man in 1741; and though he was by this time immersed in business, and at the head of his profession, he continued to devote a portion of his time to elegant pursuits. In 1751, he was made a judge, and took his seat in the Court of Session by the title of Kames, the name of the paternal estate. A few years afterward, he was appointed a member of the Board of Trustees for the encouragement of the fisheries and manufactures of Scotland; and in 1763, he was made a Lord of Justiciary, the supreme criminal court in that country. In 1766 the estate of Blair-Drummond devolved on his wife, and afforded his Lordship an opportunity of exemplifying practically his agricultural researches. The remainder of his life continued to be passed in the active discharge of judicial duties, and the dissemination of useful knowledge. His death took place in December 1782, at the advanced age of 87.

With respect to his studies and publications, the latter were very numerous, since his favourite method of investigating a subject was by writing a treatise on it. The late Sir Gilbert Elliot (father of the present Lord Minto) complaining to him one day that he understood very little of a particular branch of political economy, and expressing a wish for information; "Shall I tell you, my friend, (said Lord Kames,) how you will come to understand it? Go and write a book on it."—His attention having been at an early age turned to metaphysics, he argued on these subjects with his countryman Baxter, the author of the "Inquiry into the Nature of the Human Soul;" and he ventured to address a letter of doubts and queries to Dr. Samuel Clarke, who did not decline to answer his young correspondent, but conveyed his sentiments in a manner which discouraged any farther intercourse. After Mr. Home was called to the bar, metaphysics gave place to law, in the study of which his plan was to endeavour to reduce every question to some great and leading principle: from which he either shewed its derivation as a necessary corollary, or explained its being an exception on some obvious ground of difference. This comprehensive mode of reasoning reduced the labours of investigation to the discovery of general principles.

His first publication was a folio volume containing the "*Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session from 1716 to 1728*," the judicious execution of which was favourable to his acquisition of practice. His manner of pleading was peculiar to himself; since without attempting to interest the passions, or to captivate by the graces of oratory, he explained in simple language

language the merits of the case, and developed the principle on which, in his apprehension, the decision ought to rest. The great excellence, however, both of his pleadings and his writings, was the severe scrutiny to which he subjected ancient usages; and the new light which he threw on them by the exertions of a mind that was never blinded by mere authority. His spirit of innovation was tempered by reason, and guided by knowledge. With respect to law, it often enabled him to overturn absurd usages that were founded on precedent; and in regard to the general improvement of his country, it accelerated, in a remarkable degree, that departure from antiquated habits which forms the basis of the present prosperity of Scotland.

The plan of reducing law-cases to leading principles was adopted in Lord Kames's next great work, "*The Decisions of the Court of Session from its Institution till 1740, abridged and digested under proper heads in the form of a Dictionary.*" The rule of classification in this book is the *ratio decidendi*, or rule of law on which the judgment rests. Every head or title, therefore, is an illustration of some general principle, by a series of adjudged cases regularly methodized.—His predilection for metaphysics induced him some time afterward, in 1751, to enter the lists with his countryman and friend, David Hume, in a tract intitled "*Essays on the Principles of Morality and natural Religion.*" Here his object was to prove that the great laws of morality have their foundation in the human constitution, and are as immutable as those physical laws which regulate the system of the universe; and hence an examination of our moral constitution, and a survey of the natural world, furnish alike the most convincing evidence of order, harmony, and beauty, and demonstrate the agency of a FIRST CAUSE, unbounded in power, intelligence, and goodness. Although this production was by no means free from error, the benevolence of the writer was so apparent as to render it just matter of surprize that any clamour should have been raised against it: yet some of the clergy endeavoured to involve Lord Kames in the odium which Mr. Hume had drawn on himself. The Church at large, however, did not countenance the attempt, and it fell to the ground.

In 1757 Lord Kames published "*The Statute law of Scotland abridged, with historical Notes;*" the object of which is to methodize the whole body of the Scottish statutes by bringing the contents of each act under a general title. In the notes, the author traced the principles as well of general jurisprudence as of feudal usages, on which many of the statutes are founded.

but, as Lord Woodhouselee justly remarks, 'they do not enter sufficiently into the history and antiquities of the country, a field which is still open to the labours of an assiduous inquirer. There cannot be a more pleasing exercise to the understanding than the reciprocal elucidation of law and history. Every law is a key to the history of the times in which it was framed; and, on the other hand, ambiguous passages in antient laws may often be explained by attention to the customs of the period in which they were enacted.'—It had long been a favourite wish with Lord Kames to transfer, into the laws of England and Scotland reciprocally, the improvements which each might be found capable of affording to the other; and to identify the principles of law as much as possible throughout the United Kingdom. Such was the aim of his celebrated "*Historical Law-tracts*," which he published in Edinburgh in 1759; after having communicated the plan to the chancellor, Lord Hardwicke, and received his cordial approbation. This is one of the very few books which unite law with philosophy and the study of human nature. In the next year, he produced "*the Principles of Equity*;" a composition which is replete with learning but defective in accuracy. It was received accordingly with different feelings by different men, having been praised by Lord Hardwicke and censured by Sir William Blackstone.

Lord K.'s solicitude for the instruction of his children next directed his attention to the principles of education. The rules composed for their use he gave to the public under the title of "*An Introduction to the Art of Thinking*;" a little work of considerable utility, but which might be rendered much more useful by the exclusion of many sentences that are unsuited to the comprehension of youth. He had for some time been employed in directing to general literature that analyzing spirit which had formerly been confined to law; and in 1762 he printed one of his most popular productions, "*The Elements of Criticism*." This treatise is so well known, that it is unnecessary to say more of it in this place, than that it bears the same characteristics of originality as his other writings; and that its fundamental object is to trace the pleasures which are afforded by the Belles Lettres and Fine Arts, to their origin in the passions and affections of the mind.

In 1766, Lord Kames, reverting to legal studies, published in a folio volume "*Remarkable Decisions of the Court of Session from 1730 to 1752*;" being a selection of cases in which he was employed as counsel, to the number of 130; in all of which the *ratio decidendi* is some important principle of law,

and may be of use as a precedent in future questions. In 1774 he sent forth, after much inquiry and meditation, his "*Sketches of the History of Man*," which he seems to have intended as the conclusion of his literary labours. They were divided into three books, the first treating of the progress of men as individuals; the second, of their progress in society; and the third, of the rise and progress of the sciences. This was not, however, as he expected, the last of his productions; for, his faculties having remained in vigour for several years afterward, the world successively received from his pen the "*Gentleman Farmer, being an attempt to improve Agriculture, by subjecting it to the Test of rational Principles*," the "*Elucidations respecting the Common and Statute Law of Scotland*," the "*Select Decisions of the Court of Session from 1752 to 1768*," and, finally, "*Loose Hints on Education*," published in 1782, in his Lordship's 87th year.

If, after this enumeration of the various writings of Lord Kames, we proceed to inquire what persons in the literary world were his friends, we shall find him the associate or correspondent of a great number of eminent individuals. Hume, Blair, Smith, Ferguson, Miller, Reid, Black, Tucker, Franklin, Mrs. Montague, and many others, maintained a frequent and intimate intercourse with him. Though he was not equal for profundity of research, in particular departments of science, to several of these distinguished men, he was regarded by them as a centre of union, in consequence of his greater experience, of his diversified attainments, and, above all, of those habits of activity in business which literary men so seldom possess. Dr. Smith, when high in reputation, said of himself and others, "We must all of us acknowledge Kames as our master." His Lordship's candid and benevolent disposition also prevented any interruption to the harmony of this intercourse. He took no pleasure in exposing faults: but his delight was to cherish worth in whatever form it appeared, and to rouse by liberal praise the fire of genius. In all his writings, not a single sentence can be found which breathes a spirit of acrimony.

With regard to political sentiments, Lord Kames was educated in attachment to the Stuart family, but his good sense prevented hereditary prejudice from influencing his conduct in life. Mr. Oswald of Dunikeir, one of the most respectable members of parliament from Scotland in the middle of the last century, was his intimate friend and correspondent; and he was in the habit of writing to Lord Kames on the daily business of the legislature. Some extracts from his letters will be interesting:

*" London, 14th December 1741.*

" Since my last, the most important point of this session has been pretty fully discussed, and is, this night, entirely determined: I mean, that of the 16,000 Hanoverians taken into British pay. The Ministry endeavoured to shew, that this measure was a necessary consequence of the advice given last year to the Crown, of assisting the Queen of Hungary: that it was become a necessary measure, by the sending abroad of 16,000 British troops; and that Hanover troops, under these circumstances, were the most expedient. They were opposed on each of these points." (Here follows a detailed account of the debate.) " This question has been agitated in three different debates. On the first day MURRAY was introduced to support the Court, which he did in a set speech, extremely methodical, with great perspicuity, and very fine colouring. He was replied to by PITT, who, in the most masterly manner, laying hold of the weakest parts of his speech, with the greatest strength of expression, and in the most manly style I ever witnessed, turned almost all his colours against him. Murray had laid a good deal of stress on exposing the inconsistency of advising one thing the one year, and the next abusing it, merely through a spirit of opposition. Pitt showed how the object was varied; but varied by the Ministers, and then turned every argument Murray had employed against himself. The one spoke like a pleader, and could not divest himself of a certain appearance of having been employed by others. The other spoke like a gentleman, like a statesman, who felt what he said, and possessed the strongest desire of conveying that feeling to others, for their own interest, and that of their country. Murray gains your attention by the perspicuity of his arguments, and the elegance of his diction. Pitt commands your attention and respect, by the nobleness, the greatness of his sentiments, the strength and energy of his expressions, and the certainty you are in of his always rising to a greater elevation both of thought and style: for this talent he possesses beyond any speaker I ever heard, of never falling from the beginning to the end of his speech, either in thought or in expression. And as this session he has begun to speak like a man of business, as well as an orator, he will in all probability, or rather at present, be allowed to make as great an appearance at ever man did in that House."

The following relates to the Westminster election of 1741, which Sir Robert Walpole failed in getting confirmed by the House; a failure which was speedily followed by his resignation:

*" 24th December 1741.*

" The Westminster election has been declared void. I dare assure you, if you will trust my opinion, with the greatest justice, An injustice done under form of law is more impatiently suffered than an act of violence: so says Thucydides: it is in reality more unjust; for it is an insult on a man's understanding, as well as on his right. This maxim might have been confirmed in a particular manner from the English history. What was it that lost

*Kings*



King Charles his head? What King James his Crown and glory? It was not that the one raised money without law, and that the other suspended the penal statutes: but that both those unhappy princes procured judgments in their favour by the Courts of Westminster. — These topics came into my head during the debate; but it was late before the counsel had done; the House called for a division; and even the ablest speakers were heard with impatience. So I chose to be silent, rather than from any reluctance to speak. The vote was carried against the Court by 220 against 216. Never was a case better opened, nor a reply made in a stronger manner than was done by Murray in this case. The man is a miracle. No argument was missed; none urged but with the greatest precision; no circumstance omitted which could create an impression; none thrown in, but with the greatest propriety that judgment could suggest, or fancy improve. The courtiers are in the utmost consternation,—the Patriots inflexible: what the holidays will produce is left to fate. Yours.  
JAMES OSWALD."

In answer to some admonitions from his friend relative to parliamentary speaking, Mr. Oswald writes:

" 7th January 1742.

" Your opinion as to general reflections is certainly just; yet if short, and sparingly used, I observe they meet with very great approbation even from the youngest speakers; especially if drawn from English history, or if relative to the constitution. These topics are so familiar, and yet so interesting, that they always strike, and are never heard without pleasure. A young man, who shews but a very small knowledge on these subjects, is almost adored."

Again:

" 4th February 1742,

—" I wrote you last post, that parties were in some measure come to a crisis, and that we were in expectation of a debate upon the supplies, which would probably determine the dispute about power. The affair is now over. Sir Robert, on the night of our division upon the Chippenham election, divested himself of all his employments; and the next day, the King, coming to the H. of Peers, signified his pleasure that the two Houses should adjourn for a fortnight. The intention of this was to give his Majesty time to choose his new Ministry. You may guess what a scramble there is like to be about places, &c."

Lord Kames having applied to Mr. Oswald for his aid in bringing into notice Mr. Hume's ill-starred publication, "*The Treatise on Human Nature*," Mr. Oswald thus replies:

" Nothing can be more agreeable to me, than either to recommend our friend Hume or his book. In either of these cases, the person who recommends, does himself, in my opinion, an honour, as he becomes, in some degree, a sharer of that merit which is in both. But you cannot imagine what a difficult matter it is here at present, to fix any man's attention, but for a moment, upon any abstract subject. — Such is the general indolence of mind, that one scarcely  
lively

lively thing, whether in thought or expression, though in the midst of trash, is more greedily swallowed than the most elegant piece of reasoning. — However, there are some of the young people about the Prince who seem to have a good taste. I go to no Court myself; but, as I have an opportunity of seeing some of these gentlemen, I will do what I can to excite their curiosity, and shall afterwards let you know their sentiments."

We have already taken occasion to mention Lord K.'s manner as a Pleader. His character as a Judge we give in his biographer's words:

"As a judge, his opinions and decrees were dictated by an acute understanding, an ardent feeling of justice, and a perfect acquaintance with the jurisprudence of his country, which, notwithstanding the variety of pursuits in which his comprehensive mind had alternately found exercise, had always been his principal study, and the favourite object of his researches.

"It might very naturally have been supposed, that the metaphysical bent of his understanding would have tinctured his judicial opinions, with that refinement of argument, and subtilty of discrimination, which are the usual attendants of such a habit of thinking: And perhaps, on a few occasions, where the nature of the subject strongly prompted to that species of reasoning and investigation, he may have been known to indulge a favourite propensity. But the general mode of his judicial speaking was very different. He rarely entered into any elaborate argument in support of his opinions: it was enough that he had formed them with deliberation, and that they were the result of a conscientious persuasion of their being founded on justice and on a fair interpretation of the laws."

On his having been raised to the Justiciary Court, it is remarked:

"He has been censured by some, for severity as a criminal Judge: but he had no other severity than that which arises in a warm and ingenuous mind from the abhorrence of vice; from the hatred of crimes, and the zeal for their suppression. From the difference in the constitution and forms of the criminal courts in Scotland and in England, there is a material difference in the functions of the Judge. In Scotland, where every criminal is allowed on his trial the aid of counsel to conduct his defence, to examine the evidence, to urge every argument in exculpation that can avail either with Court or Jury, and to reply to the pleadings and charge of the prosecutor, the Judge is not, as in England, understood to be *ex officio* of counsel for the party accused."

It has been much disputed among the readers of the *Elements of Criticism*, whether the writer was naturally possessed of much sensibility, or whether his taste was not the result of study. Lord Woodhouselee is of the latter opinion, in which we agree with him; since, without inquiring whether

Lord

Lord Kames in his youth possessed acute sensibility or not, it is natural to conclude that a life passed in the exercise of memory and judgment,—powers which are merely intellectual,—would exclude the predominance of imagination. In regard to his style, Lord Woodhouselee makes these judicious remarks:

‘I have often thought, that the Author’s manner of writing took its character in some degree from his profession. It was his custom always to dictate his compositions to an amanuensis. His disquisitions have much the air of a pleading or an oration: he generally speaks in the first person: he makes frequent apostrophes, as an orator to his audience; appeals to the judgment or the feelings of his reader; and, from time to time, arouses him by a direct call upon his attention, as if he suspected it to be wandering. He frequently supposes an antagonist pleading against him, and supporting with ingenuity the opposite side of the dispute: he puts a home question; presses a point conceded by his opponent; allows the weight of some of his arguments; corrects mistakes, as seeming to take an unfair advantage; but never fails in the end to claim a complete victory. This gives a sort of dramatic interest to his reasonings, which, even when employed on the most abstruse subjects, are seldom apt to fatigue his readers; but convey profound instruction, without the formality and the dryness of a professed lecture.—On the whole, if we cannot, consistently with impartial criticism, admit, that Lord Kames is either an elegant, a pure, or a correct writer, we must allow that his composition is always clear and perspicuous, announcing his meaning with precision, simple in its structure, aiming at no ambitious ornaments; and that his manner possesses an agreeable simplicity and earnestness, which fix the attention of the reader, while it convinces him that the Author speaks from a firm persuasion of the truth of the doctrines he inculcates.’

The principal characteristics of Lord Kames’s manner were frankness and vivacity. He was fond of argument, but never betrayed the smallest heat of temper: his habits were so averse from artifice, that he would not readily listen to the charge of artifice in others; and he made it a rule to avoid political topics in mixed company, not from dislike to such discussions, but to prevent occasions of dispute and animosity. The love of reputation was one of his governing passions.

The freedom with which Lord K. censured the *Henriade*, in his *Elements of Criticism*, gave much offence to Voltaire, and attracted the sarcasms of that *Coryphæe* of literature. It is amusing to find the Frenchman, who could not with delicacy praise his own book, affecting to wreak his vengeance on the *Edon* for his encomiums on Shakspeare. We translate an extract from Voltaire’s *Lettre à un Journaliste*, as a specimen of

of his humor, as well as of those mistakes in regard to names and titles, which Frenchmen habitually commit :

‘ Permit me to explain to you some whimsical singularities of the “Elements of Criticism,” in three volumes, published by M. Home, Lord *Macaine*, a justice of peace in Scotland. That philosopher has a most profound knowledge of nature and art, and he uses the utmost efforts to make the rest of the world as wise as himself. He begins by proving that we have five senses ; and that we are less struck by a gentle impression made on our eyes and ears by colours and sounds, than by a knock on the head or a kick on the leg. Proceeding from that to the rules of time and space, M. Home concludes, with mathematical precision, that time seems long to a lady who is about to be married, and short to a man who is about to be hanged. M. Home applies doctrines equally extraordinary to all departments of art. It is a surprising effect of the progress of the human mind, that we should now receive from Scotland rules for our taste in all matters, from an epic poem down to a garden. Knowledge extends daily ; and we must not despair of hereafter obtaining performances in poetry and oratory from the Orkney islands. M. Home always lays down his opinion as a law, and extends his despotic sway far and wide. He is a judge who absorbs all appeals.’

The progress of agriculture in Scotland is intimately connected with the biography of Lord Kames. Nearly a century has now passed since improvements began to be introduced in the northern part of the United Kingdom ; and about thirty years since its inhabitants have claimed a precedency, in agricultural skill, over their fellow-subjects in the south. The farmers in Galloway began to inclose their waste lands in the English mode ; about the year 1720. In 1733, a society was formed for the encouragement of agriculture, which in a short time comprehended three hundred of the principal land-holders in Scotland ; and the rebellion of 1745 repaid its temporary evils by improving the highways, suppressing the heritable jurisdictions, and abolishing the personal services of the peasantry. Lord Kames, having been appointed one of the Commissioners for the management of the estates which were forfeited in the rebellion, was indefatigable in the discharge of his duty. It was with him a favourite object to establish a “ Board of Agriculture for Scotland ;” and although this aim was not accomplished in his life-time, it has since been virtually realized by two separate institutions, the British Board of Agriculture, and the Highland Society ; the latter of which, notwithstanding its limited name, embraces every thing that regards the husbandry of Scotland.

Among other improvements, Lord K. suggested a survey of the Western Islands, and recommended for that purpose the late Dr. Walker, who was afterward professor of Natural History at

at Edinburgh. This gentleman's letters to his Lordship on Natural History form a considerable part of the Appendix to the present work. He visited the Western Islands in 1764; and, after having lamented the general neglect of agriculture and fishing, he proceeds to give an account of the introduction of flax-spinning at Stornoway, in a passage which is curious as describing the feelings of a rude people, and which concludes with a singular misconception :

When the spinning-school was erected here eight months ago, it met with the greatest opposition from the people. No young women could be brought to it, till they were compelled. To avoid this, great numbers of them got themselves married, which was the case with several but of twelve years old. But finding that this was to be no protection, they at length submitted, and ever since, the school has continued full. They now find it both easy and profitable, and pursue it with a degree of spirit and cheerfulness, which is very agreeable. I saw above fifty of them, from nine to twenty-five years of age, at their wheels, in one room, where a wheel was scarce ever known before. They seemed quite happy at their work, and all joined in a Highland song, which gave me more pleasure; if it be safe to own such an unpolite notion, than any concert I was ever present at.

The spinning mistress, who is a woman from Fife, I found under real, nay I may say, bodily amazement, at the quick apprehension and docility of her scholars; who, though they understand not her language, comprehend in a day or two every thing she means. I was not, however, so much surprised at this, as the good woman seemed to be, having been, for two months past, more and more convinced, that the mind of man is to be observed more and more perfect, as one moves northwards: that a penetrating air seems to produce penetrating souls; and that wind and weather, the keener they are, appear to give the sharper edge to the human understanding.

In addition to the epistolary productions of Dr. Walker, the Appendix consists of letters to Lord Kames, on political economy, from Dr. Josiah Tucker, Dean of Gloucester; on metaphysics, from Dr. Reid; on miscellaneous subjects, from Mrs. Montague; and of two Essays from the pen of Lord Woodhouselee, the one on *Final Causes*, and the other on the *Principles of Criminal Jurisprudence*.

We have before hinted at the too great extension which has been given to these volumes; and we must add that they are too much pervaded by general encomium. Almost every personage who figures in the narrative is represented as super-eminent in virtue or in talents; the consequence of which is that the descriptive effect is lessened, and the reader ceases to bestow attention on eulogies which are so freely conferred.

ferred. In our judgment, also, somewhat of an air of pomposity appears in the plan and style of the work, which is unsuited to the familiarity of biography; since it is divided and subdivided into books and chapters with as much precision as if it had been a history of the world. In other and more important respects, however, the publication is intitled to praise. It records a variety of curious facts concerning the progress of literature in Scotland; and it bespeaks a mind which is laudably animated, like that of him whose life it relates, with zeal for the improvement of man by the communication of knowledge.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JANUARY, 1810.

L A W.

Art. 11. *A Summary of the Laws of Commerce and Navigation adapted to the present State, Government, and Trade of the Island of Newfoundland.* By the Rev. Lewis Amadeus Anspach. Recommended for Publication by Vice Admiral J. Holloway, Governor and Commander in Chief of Newfoundland, and its Dependencies. 8vo. pp. 140. Printed by Henney and Haddes, Tabernacle Walk, Finsbury. 1809.

A LEGAL performance is certainly not the kind of composition which we expect from a Divine; and such a present from such a quarter might rather indispose us towards the author, than operate in his favour. It is not, therefore, without reason that the Rev. Mr. Anspach states the considerations which induced him to offer to the public the present summary of certain of our municipal laws. He observes in his Introduction, that

‘A sense of duty, on his being appointed a Magistrate of the Island of Newfoundland in 1803, to make himself as well acquainted as he could, with those laws in particular, which were to regulate his conduct and decisions in the discharge of that office, had directed his thoughts towards compiling, in his *humble hours*, out of Burn’s *Jurges*, and Mr. Reeves’ *Book on the Laws of Newfoundland*, a small work for the assistance of himself and others of his Brother-Magistrates in this Island, who might stand in need of it. He communicated his ideas on this subject to the highest legal authority in Newfoundland, who not only approved his intention, but also suggested to him that the usefulness of that compilation would be still more extensive, if he included in it “every court *existent* in this Island;” and for this purpose, very kindly offered him the assistance of his library and advice. Actuated by a strong wish to render himself as useful as he had opportunity to the merchants, and other inhabitants of this valuable appendage to the British Crown, the compiler undertook the proposed task, not however without feeling a considerable degree of diffidence. He collected his materials,

which,

which; as it may naturally be supposed, multiplied rapidly as he proceeded. What might at first have been considered as a laborious task, became, as the subject expanded before him, a pleasure, which he took care not to embitter by the consciousness of neglecting the more important duties of his vocation as a Clergyman. His *leisure* hours improved and assisted by early habits of application and industry, and the advice of his much honoured friend, to whose inspection he regularly submitted every spring the result of his labours during the preceding winter, produced at last a work, which, after successively undergoing a variety of shapes, is now "A Systematical Review of the Laws of Commerce and Navigation, adapted to the present State, Government, and Trade of the Island of Newfoundland, with an Appendix, containing an abstract of the Laws of the United States relating to General Commerce," compiled from the best authorities, such as Jacob's Law Dictionary by Tomlins; Marshall's Laws of Insurance, Bailey's Bills of Exchange, Robinson's Court of Admiralty Reports, Term Reports, Abbot's and Reeves' Law of Shipping, Collection of Sea-Laws, Graydon's Laws of the United States, several periodical publications, &c. &c., containing the most important modern cases, from which the principles of law are deduced. He begs leave to observe that Abbot's and Marshall's valuable publications came to his hands only last year, when the work was finished.'

He pays a just tribute to the two latter very valuable works. Of these learned labours, the present Summary is only an Abridgement. It is divided into two parts:

'The *first* treats of the laws of *Contracts*, including, among other articles, Deeds, Bonds, Sale and Exchange, Sale of Ships, Contracts of Bailments, Common Carriers, Contracts of Debt, Bills of Exchange, Bankruptcy, Marine Contracts, Bottomry and Respondentia, Marine Insurance, Freight, and Charter-parties.

'The *second* part treats of the Laws of Navigation, Customs, Seizures; Causes of forfeiture of Vessels or Cargoes; Offences against Shipping; Ships' Registers; respective duties, rights, and responsibility of Owners and Masters of vessels; special duties of Masters, on leaving port, during the voyage, coming into port, and on arrival in port; respective duties of Masters, Mariners, and Apprentices; Articles, Master's Authority, discharge of Seamen; Payment, loss, and forfeiture of wages; Hospital Duty; regulations relating to the Plantation Trade; Trade with the United States; Imports, Exports, Bonds and Certificates; Master's duty on arrival at the Plantations; Rules relating to Seizures there.—Laws of Newfoundland, general regulations concerning the Trade and Fishery; Imports, Exports, regulations concerning Rooms, Stages, &c., concerning the Police, Masters and Servants, and Courts of Newfoundland.'

The law on these several matters is here laid down with great precision, and expounded with much clearness. If, therefore, as the author assures us, the duties of his immediate vocation did not suffer from his efforts in another province, he will not only be

forgiven for the intrusion which he confesses, but must be considered as having very much enhanced his claims to consideration. In this country, such works of supererogation are not required : but in a distant and sequestered corner of the Empire, a man of intelligence, who applies his habits and acquirements to a variety of objects, acts meritoriously and laudably. Our church does not consider the sacerdotal and civil characters as incompatible; since it engrafts on the latter the highest legislative and very important magisterial duties.

The following analysis of a well known statute will shew that, in the praise which we have bestowed on Mr. A.'s tract, we have done him no more than justice.

'A *Promise* is in the nature of a verbal covenant. If therefore it be to do any explicit act, it is an express contract, as much as any covenant; and the breach of it is an equal injury. But in the following cases, no verbal promise shall be sufficient to ground an action upon, but at the least some note or memorandum of it shall be made in writing, and signed by the party to be charged therewith: viz. (1.) Where an executor or administrator promises to answer damages out of his own estate: (2.) Where a man undertakes to answer for the debt, default, or miscarriage of another: and even here, if the consideration be not expressed, the promise, though in writing, shall be void: (3.) Where any agreement is made upon consideration of marriage: (4.) Where any contract or sale is made of lands, tenements, or hereditaments, or any interest therein: (5.) Where there is any agreement that is not to be performed within the year. But all contracts and agreements which, though not in writing, are in their own nature free from all danger of introducing fraud or perjury, are out of the purview of this statute.

'Parole evidence of a *parole communication* between the parties to a written agreement, is not to be admitted to add a term not inserted in the specific agreement which they have executed; nor can the consideration be supplied by *parole*, where the writing is wholly silent on that head.'

#### NOVELS.

Art. 12. *The Assassins of St. Glenroy, or the Axis of Life.* By Anthony Frederick Holstein. 12mo. 4 Vols. 11. Boards. Newman and Co. 1810.

We paid a tribute to the inventive powers of this author in our account of his *Sir Owen Glendower*: (Rev. for September) but the present publication, without lessening our opinion of his talents, excites our regret by an avowal which may perhaps be attractive to some readers; namely, that he has attempted portrait painting in several of the characters. We think that this practice of introducing living personages into the novels of the day is both ungenerous and unjustifiable, and though it may produce a transient curiosity, it seldom increases the intrinsic merit of a work. The Lady Orina of this tale is, however, so common a character, that it would be difficult to make any individual application of it; while 'The Fish-

monger



monger of Dorsetshire' is so dull and so indelicate, that we cannot but rejoice at having no acquaintance with the original.

A few inelegant expressions occur, such as '*regularly mouldered features*,'—'he was *obligated* to entreat,'—'Your Ladyship appears quite *in the dolorous*,' &c. We also object to the profusion of French which is introduced: the author not only makes all his fashionable characters talk French with great fluency, but, in order to confirm his own assertion that he has himself moved in the same sphere, he intersperses French sentences very perseveringly in the narrative. These passages do not always possess idiomatic propriety; as when we are told of Sir Felix Guildford, that 'in temporary *amour* he ever had continued;' and they are very seldom correctly written. We read of the heroine's '*sojour*' in a place in which she was entertained with '*petite soupers*' and a '*grande am-bigu*,' and of her displaying to her lover '*some of the bijou*' with which she had ornamented her boudoir.

We have, however, the pleasure of stating that the merits of this novel overbalance its defects; the incidents are interesting and well imagined; some of the characters are original, and ably supported; and the dialogue, though too flowery, is always animated, and occasionally witty.

Art. 13. *Euston*. 12mo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Chapple. 1809.

The commencement of this Novel is singular, and not prepossessing: the hero is first introduced to our notice as exulting in the execution of the late unfortunate King of France: but he appears, in the course of the narrative, to make a tacit abjuration of this and various other errors; and though his history is too desultory to preserve much semblance of probability, it seems to have been written by a man of strong sense, of some feeling, and a scholar.—The work perhaps contains more argument than will be amusing to those readers who are impatient of every interruption of the story; and the tale itself neither possesses much interest nor conveys any impressive moral: but the language has the merit of being nervous and polished in an unusual degree; when it is impassioned, it is not inflammatory; and where it is disquisitorial, it escapes being dull.

Art. 14. *The Irish Recluse; or a Breakfast at the Rotunda*.

By Sarah Idell. 12mo. 3 Vols. sewed. Booth.

Though this tale may not afford much pleasure, it can give as little offence, unless it be from the very poor attempt at caricature which is made in describing 'a breakfast at the Rotunda.' The style is unaffected, and the story is moral; and though it be not recommended by great novelty of incident, or any highly wrought characters, we imagine that it will not be entirely without readers among that indulgent and insatiable class, who are contented with negative merit in works of fancy, and to whom a romantic title is an apology for all deficiencies.

## E D U C A T I O N.

- Art. 15. *An Introduction to Arithmetic*, in which the Four principal Rules are illustrated by a Variety of Questions, Geographical, Biographical, and Miscellaneous. By Richard Chambers. 18mo. 1s. 6d. Bound. Bone and Hone. 1809.

The principal object of this little treatise is to make the young student acquainted with miscellaneous knowledge, while he is learning the science of numbers. On this account, therefore, a variety of information is introduced into the questions to be resolved, which the learner will in a manner feel obliged to fix in his memory, while he is studying to give the proper solutions.

- Art. 16. *Mentorian Lectures*, on Sacred and Moral Subjects; adapted to the Comprehension of Juvenile Readers. To which are added some original miscellaneous Poems. By Ann Murry, Author of *Mentoria*. 8vo. pp. 254. 4s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

Those persons who are intrusted with the formation of young minds will find this work well calculated to be put into the hands of their pupils. The lectures consist of several dialogues between a young lady of the age of thirteen or fourteen, and her governess; and the subjects of their conversations are Mental Cultivation, Moral Excellence, Taste, and the Sublimity and Beauty of the Holy Scriptures. Each of these topics is explained to the comprehension of a person of the age above-mentioned; and the account of the Scriptures is so rational, just, and interesting, that it cannot fail to be pleasing and instructing to the juvenile reader.

- Art. 17. *The Pleasures of Benevolence; or the History of Miss Goodwill*: intended as a Companion to "The Sorrows of Selfishness." By a Lady. 12mo. pp. 150. 3s. 6d. Bound. Harris. 1809.

This work is intended for the use of young persons, and contains many good lessons for their mental improvement. In a very pleasing manner, the fair writer has contrived to describe the virtues of piety, benevolence, meekness, humility, and purity; and we hope that, in attracting the attention of young people, she will be rewarded for the pains which she has taken in their behalf.

- Art. 18. *Affection's Gift, or Religious Conversations*. 18mo. 1s. Harris.

Six dialogues between a mother and her daughter, on religious and other subjects, are here adapted for the comprehension of the infant mind.

- Art. 19. *Learning better than House and Land*, as exemplified in the History of a Squire and a Cow-herd. By J. Carey, LL. D. 18mo. pp. 132. 1s. 6d. Tabart and Co.

Dr. Carey has adapted this tale to display the advantages of learning, though unattended with wealth and rank, over the possession of the gifts of fortune without mental acquirements. After a variety of incidents, the young Squire, who refused to pay attention to his books,

books, is degraded to the station of a barber in America; while the son of the Cow-herd, who made the most of every opportunity to improve himself in learning, becomes a merchant of eminence in the same country. The tale is a counterpart of the old story of the Basket-maker, and of the late ingenious Mr. Day's *Little Jack*: but the lesson which it conveys can never be told too often, while mankind remains in want of it.

**Art. 20.** *The Elements of English Education*, containing. Part I. An Introduction to English Grammar. II. A concise English Grammar. III. A short System of Oratory. IV. An abridged History of England. V. Outlines of Geography. VI. A miscellaneous prose Selection from approved Authors. VII. A miscellaneous poetical Selection from the best Authors. Intended for the Improvement of Youth of both Sexes. By John Brown, Master of an Academy, Kingston, Surrey. 12mo. pp. 348. Crosby and Co. 1809.

Mr. Brown has here given concise abstracts of the several subjects mentioned in his title-page; and to such as have not the means of procuring nor time to peruse larger treatises, his book will be valuable, as containing much information in a little compass. The particulars are also well digested and perspicuously arranged.

**Art. 21.** *The Academy, or Picture of Youth.* 12mo. pp. 182. 3s. 6d. Bound. Harris.

It is stated in the preface that the author of this work has been for several years employed in the education of youth; and he has here attempted to give directions for the treatment of young persons of different dispositions, by those who have the care of them. In the prosecution of this object, he has suggested a plan which has a degree of novelty, and his method is pleasing. Young persons may profit by a perusal of the volume, and teachers of youth may read it with some advantage.

**Art. 22.** *The Mother's Catechism*; or first Principles of Knowledge and Instruction for very young Children.

**Art. 23.** *Catechism of General Knowledge*; or a brief Introduction to the Arts and Sciences, for the Use of Schools and Families.

**Art. 24.** *The Catechism of Health*; containing simple and easy Rules and Directions for the Management of Children, and Observations on the Conduct of Health in general. For the Use of Schools and Families.

All by William Mavor, LL. D. 18mo. 1s. each. Lackington and Co. 1809.

We have read these useful little publications with pleasure, and can safely recommend them to the notice of teachers of young children. The Mother's Catechism contains some of the principles of religion, and such parts of useful knowledge as best suit their tender years. The Catechism of General Knowledge seems to be designed for children somewhat older, and gives such short notices of the arts and sciences, as will furnish them with general ideas of the subjects. The Cate-

chism of Health merits the attention of parents and teachers, as well as young persons, and contains several directions with respect to the acquisition and preservation of that inestimable blessing.

- Art. 25. *Exempla Propria*: or English Sentences, translated from the best Roman Writers, and adapted to the Rules in Syntax: to be again translated into the Latin Language: Designed for the Use of junior Boys in Classical Schools. By the Rev. George Whittaker, A. M. Master of the Grammar School in Southampton. 12mo. pp. 179. 3s. Bound. Law.

The method of grounding young persons in the Latin language, by setting them to re-translate what had been before extracted from the classics, has been adopted by Mr. Clarke and others who have written exercise-books for the junior classes. The improvement in the present volume is that each word to be rendered has its part of speech, gender, and termination marked in the place: so that the young scholar is not under the necessity of consulting his dictionary on any occasion. As calculated, therefore, to lighten the labours of the student, and to facilitate an attainment of the language, this work deserves the attention of classical teachers.

- Art. 26. *The History of an Officer's Widow, and her young Family.* 12mo. pp. 182. 1s. Bound. Harris. 1809.

The moral of this tale inculcates on young persons the important truth, that, by attending to the duties of the station in which circumstances may place them, they may attain to eminence, though that station does not perfectly accord with their dispositions or previous views of life. Charles Belfield, though educated with a design of succeeding to the church, being thwarted in his intentions, is compelled to take up the profession of arms, and at length, by valour and perseverance, succeeds to independence; while his brother Henry, whom nothing could satisfy but the life of a soldier, is under the necessity of engaging in trade, and yet, by integrity and industry, gains respect and affluence. The story is interesting, and such as may in a peculiar manner beneficially engage the attention of juvenile minds.

- Art. 27. *A Grammar of the French Language*; or a new Method of learning to speak and write French, on a theoretic, practical, and regularly-progressive Plan; in which the Genius of the Language is completely explained and exemplified, by comparing it with that of the English. Intended for the Use of Schools, and adapted to the Capacities of Scholars of all Ages, and of either Sex. By L'Abbé Grandmottet, Professor of the French Language and Belles Lettres, in Caroline College, Brunswick. Large 8vo. pp. 255. 5s. 6d. Diddier and Tebbet. 1808.

We are told that the author's reason for publishing this work is, that he felt the want of an elementary book suited to his own ideas; and that his aim was to form such an one as would preclude him from all the unpleasant part of teaching. It appears to us that the Abbé's rules, though concise, are easy to be comprehended; and the exercises, though numerous, are so contrived as to amuse the scholar, and improve him in the language. The method which the author pursues

is to alter the English so as to adapt it to the genius of the French, and thus enable the learner to translate it with greater ease and correctness.

**Art. 28.** *Important Studies for the Female Sex*, in Reference to modern Manners. By Mrs. Cockle. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Chapple.

In this well-written little work, a great part of the chapter on 'Temper' is much to be commended both for its style and its sentiments; and the story of 'Mrs. Orville,' though not new, is so impressively related as to enforce the moral which it illustrates. The fair writer also gives some useful advice with respect to the economy of time, and the appropriation of every hour to some destined employment. She is rather complimentary to those contemporaries of her own sex, who have written on the subject of education: but she is sometimes in danger of inculcating such motives for the actions which she recommends, as (we hope) would not be encouraged by the authors whom she takes for her models. Thus, page 58, she assures her young friend that 'the tear of benevolence, or the blush of modesty, those interesting testimonies of the worth of the heart, are far more attractive than the diamond which glitters in the tiara as a rival to the one, or the rouge which is resorted to as a substitute for the other;'—and in page 139, she bids the matron 'recollect that the interesting and gentle graces of the mother present in that moment' (i. e. when she is nursing) 'a more attractive picture, a more powerful charm than fashion ever bestowed, with all the adventitious aids of dress or beauty.'

Such considerations as these, improperly understood and applied, may destroy the artlessness of compassion, and vitiate the purity of maternal tenderness. If 'the tear of benevolence' be 'resorted to' as an attraction, and the youthful mother be instructed to mingle coquetry with her duties, the readers of this book will be still farther from "simplicity and godly sincerity" than they were before Mrs. Cockle undertook to improve them. It is, however, but just to acknowledge that the instances which we have quoted are the only cases in which we remarked a defective morality, and that the general tenor of the work is rational and instructive.

**Art. 29.** *Explication du Procédé grammatical, propre à amener le Sourd-muet du Point où il est à celui de l'Homme civilisé.* Printed on a large Sheet. 1s. Savage.

We have here the process by which the ingenious and excellent Abbé Sicard contrived to lead his deaf and dumb pupils to comprehend a proposition, and by degrees to learn a language. It inspires the reader with an exalted opinion of the extreme skill, labour, and patience, which are requisite for the accomplishment of a task so difficult and tedious. The tables were executed in France by the Abbé's own pupils, and they are said to be reprinted here, 'in hopes that those who are charged with the education of youth may take the hint, and examine whether our own language first, and every other language afterward, may not be taught according to the method laid down in them.' We do not much think that this experiment will be tried; and if it were, we should entertain but faint expectations from it. The deaf and

dumb must imbibe *all* their notions of language from the rules laid down by their instructors ; but ordinary children, long before they come under the dominion of a master, have a practical knowledge of their mother-tongue. Many of the explanations, therefore, which are essential to the former, would only serve to multiply the difficulties that impede the progress of the latter.

#### POLITICS.

Art. 30. *A Discourse on the real Principles of the Revolution, the Bill of Rights, Act of Settlement, &c.* : in which the Representations of Sir Francis Burdett, Mr. Maddox, and others, are considered, *their Ignorance and their Falsehood exposed, and their real Views detected* ; being the Substance of three Lectures delivered in Trinity Term, 1809, by the Gresham Lecturer in Civil Law. 8vo. pp. 72. Hatchard. 1809.

If this lecturer be well skilled in the laws and language of ancient Rome, he has furnished us with another instance to shew that those attainments may exist apart from any eminent knowledge of our own laws and language. His abrupt style may however be vindicated, as occasioned by the ardour of his zeal, and the sublimity of his patriotism ; or as roused and excited by the imminent danger of the state, arising not from external but internal hostility. This noble glow disdains to submit to the jurisdiction of ordinary criticism, and the rules of ordinary conduct. If the cause be served, mis-statements and misrepresentations become beauties, empty declamation must pass for close reasoning, and bold assertions be deemed as valid as sound arguments. Admitting the zealous civilian before us to be thus privileged, he presents strong claims to praise ; nothing can be so admirably reasoned as his tract ; nothing so strictly argumentative throughout. If Sir Francis Burdett, in one of his speeches, exculpated Tooke, Hardy, Muir, Palmer, &c. from the charge of treason, our civilian slips Despard and his associates and the Irish rebels into the list, and then inveighs against the Baronet as the advocate of the latter. He tells us that certain persons were taking measures to procure a meeting, which was to assume the character and powers of a national representation, and to supersede the authority of Parliament ; alluding, no doubt, to the proceeding for which Messrs. Tooke, Hardy, &c. were taken up. It is true that they were charged with what is here ascribed to them : but successive juries, consisting of individuals as much above suspicion as the Gresham lecturer, have, on their solemn oaths, given their negative to these charges. At one of the trials, Mr. Pitt was asked whether he had not been appointed a delegate to a similar meeting, and he answered in the negative on his oath : but Mr. Sheridan, being asked the same question, not only admitted the fact, but stated that Mr. Pitt also had been such a delegate, and alleged circumstances which brought it to the Minister's recollection, who requested permission of the court to amend his oath by retracting his previous denial. The lecturer seems, at the time when he wrote, to have been well pleased with our situation ; and from his pages we should collect that we never were better governed ; that our affairs, foreign and domestic,

were

were never more skilfully managed ; that we never had more pure nor abler ministers ; and that public measures were never better devised nor more adroitly executed.

We are at a loss to account for this writer's resentment towards the party whom he here assails, since they have been the best supporters of his political idols. The present premier has candidly acknowledged his obligations to them. These patriots *par excellence*, who avow the wish, "*may things grow worse in order that they may grow better.*" have with equal consistency and frankness supported the Percivals, Cannings, and Castlereaghs, and deprecated the return to power of their opponents ; and a person of great authority among the exclusive patriots has said that, in the actual state of the government, the people can have no interest in a change, which, as respecting them, is only to be considered as sure to occasion farther taxation : shrewdly remarking, also, that the said people think that we have taxes enough already. If the lecturer will view things on this side, he may hereafter qualify his censure of the popular Baronet and his partisans.

Art. 31. *The Real State of England*, 1809. 8vo. pp. 117. 4s. 6d. sewed. Mathews and Co.

*Great cry and little wool!* Never were we danced up and down through sacred, profane, and ecclesiastical history, and made to pore our blind eyes over 117 closely printed pages of *long primer*, to so little purpose as on the present occasion. We have placed the pamphlet in the political class, because its title indicates such a bearing : but its complexion is religious ; and the object of this long *rigmarole* is to prove (what few of our readers will be disposed to question) ' that, to render the labours of man effectual, something more is necessary than human power.' The *naval* victories of England are considered as the result of ' *a dispensation of the most extraordinary mercy and goodness* ;' (may not the enemy also make the same boast of his not less splendid *land-victories*?) and we are exhorted not to confide in the doctrine of a *balance of power*, nor in our commerce, nor in our wealth, nor in our arms. Of the real state of England, we have no other account than such as is to be found in every *Fast-Sermon* ; and when the writer speaks of certain of our laws relative to ecclesiastical affairs, as ' acceptable in the sight of Omnipotence,' he uses, in our judgment, a sort of presumptuous language which ought not to pass unimproved. "*Who hath known the mind of the Lord?*"

#### POETRY, and the DRAMA.

Art. 32. *The Sons, or Family Feuds*, 'a Tragic Play, in five Acts. By T. Jones. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Tipper, &c. 1809.

It is irksome to analyse nonsense ; and yet, if this task never fell to our lot, we might grow sleepy with satisfaction. Our censorial powers, however, are seldom suffered long to lie dormant ; and if they had at present no other employment, they would find sufficient exercise in the examination of this play. From the manner in which it is printed, we imagine that it is intended for blank verse : but we find scarcely a line in the whole composition.

sition which is not defective in metre.—Will the reader accept a specimen?

‘ Act II. Scene 1st.

ALMIRA. And are you really well?  
My brother even now, did grate my ears,  
With words that spoke of Ferdinand but ill;  
Yet, does it glad my heart to find the tale  
Untrue.

MORTIMER. Thanks, kind Almira; you have the tender  
Of my thanks for this int’reast in my fate,  
So undeserv’d.

ALMIRA. Ah! Ferdinand, you are  
My favo’rite!

MORTIMER. Indeed; then am I happier,  
Than I thought I were. What can she mean?

(*aside.*) For,  
Surely favor’d is the man, who shares esteem,  
So highly valued as Almira’s.—

ALMIRA, *with involuntary haste.*

And  
Pray, did Ferdinand, so youthful, ever  
Love?

MORTIMER. Love, Lady, yes, but ah! alas!

ALMIRA, (*with exultation.*)

She  
Died then! and could you love again?

MORTIMER. Good heavens! (*aside.*)’ &c. &c.

The plot is not superior to the execution of this play. We have been taught by Shakespeare to dispense with the Unities of Time and Place, but who can be pleased without unity of Interest? The two Sons of Count Belmond strut their hour on the Stage, and then are eclipsed by the stranger, Mortimer; he is again dismissed to make room for the sorrows of Olivia and the intrigues of Almira; and the only point in which this production resembles any work of genius, with which we are acquainted, is that, like *Rasselas*, it has “a Conclusion in which nothing is concluded.”

Art. 33. *Poems*, by Sir John Carr. 8vo. pp. 228. 10s. 6d.  
Boards. Mathews and Leigh. 1809.

The notoriety, which has attached to the excursions of this Traveller to the “Green Mountains of Erin,” excited our curiosity to trace his progress in a journey to Parnassus; and we find that he has not assumed the privilege of Travellers by remaining at his fire side, and amusing us with a fabulous account of regions which he never visited. On the contrary, he has gathered several poetic flowers, which, though they seem not to have been culled at the very top of the Hill, are not destitute of fragrance nor of beauty.

Sir John Carr modestly and properly calls these poems “*Vers de Société.*” His complimentary lines are not always among the most successful of his compositions; but in his more serious poems, he



is pathetic and unaffected ; the lines 'to Study' are fanciful and poetical ; and though his subjects are often too trivial, his poetry displays feeling and imagination.

Sir John occasionally indulges, however, too much in trifling conceits, and in punning ; and surely this lowest species of wit will not sanction the allotment of a whole 8vo. page of fine paper to such specimens of it as the following :

*' Epigram on seeing the dilapidated state of Bethlehem Hospital.*

' Well with the purpose does the place agree ;

For e'en the very house is crack'd you see.'

We add a more pleasing specimen, though the compliment which it conveys is perhaps too much indebted to poetic licence.

*' Lines on hearing Miss ——— sing at an Evening party.*

' THE NIGHTINGALE'S COMPLAINT.

" The Moon had bespangled the murmuring wave,  
The dew-drop had moisten'd the moss of the cave,  
The summer-night breeze, like a sigh, was just heard,  
When thus flow'd the strains of the dark warbling bird :

" I hear a strange melody breath thro' the grove,  
Now swelling with joy, and now melting with love ;  
Tho' sweet is the sound, yet it should not invade,  
Unbidden, my lonely dominion of shade.

" As long as the stars that now twinkle shall shine,  
This willow's my throne, and all nature is mine :  
Perchance 'tis the breeze on yon desolate lute ;  
Its strings are now sighing, so long that were mute.

" Ah ! no, silly bird that I am ! shall I grieve ?  
Shall envy alarm, and shall folly deceive ?  
'Tis the voice of Eliza ? I hear it again,  
Enraptur'd I hear it, nor envy restrain."  
Then Philomel flutter'd with tremulous wing  
To Eliza more happy to listen than sing !'

A portrait of Sir J. Carr is prefixed to the volume.

Art. 34. *The Hermitage, or Views of Life and Manners: a Poem,* with Notes. Crown 8vo. Boards. Longman and Co.

Of these very heterogeneous titles, the latter is certainly the most appropriate to the poem, which contains nothing relative to a *Hermitage* ; unless it be a description, in the beginning, of a

' Neat cot, with flowers and ivy graced,'  
in which the author wishes to reside.

The views of ' Life and Manners' are written with truth and good temper ; and we find nothing in them which is chimerical, except the numerous *heads* into which the subjects are unnecessarily divided, and which interrupt the connection of the poem and distract the attention of the reader.

The 'Walk in the City' seems to have been composed out of Swift's "Walk in London:" but the notes display reflection and judgment ; and we may recommend the poem as an interesting and pleasing composition.

Art.

Art. 35. *Camilla, or the Deserted Sister.* A Poem, founded on well known Occurrences. Inscribed to a Right Honourable Lady. By W. W. W. 4to. 2s. J. T. Hughes. 18c9.

As we wish to consider compositions without entering into controversies, we can only speak of the poetical merits of this publication; and these appear to have been injured by the indignation which has dictated the expressions. The Muses may be angry, but they should not be abusive. They are, however, here invoked to detail so atrocious a transaction, that we must excuse though we cannot applaud their resentment; and as we have had no previous knowledge of the facts on which this poem is founded, we can only wish that it may excite contrition in proportion to the justice of its cause and the veracity of its narration.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 36. *Another Guess at Junius, and a Dialogue.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. Hookham, junior.

Not yet tired of guessing, this anonymous author is resolved on another trial to disclose the mysterious Junius; who, it seems, is not Mr. Burke, Single Speech Hamilton, Lord George Sackville, Lord Ashburton, Serjeant Adair, General Lee, Lord Shelburne, nor Mr. Boyd, but no less a personage than William Pitt, the great Earl of Chatham. The author of this guess labours, with much ingenuity, to prove that, at last, he has *hit the right nail on the head*, and that his conjecture assumes the shape and semblance of probability: but we cannot be of his opinion. Beyond a doubt, this celebrated writer was a person of eminence, above the rank and station of Mr. Boyd: but, if the prominent feature of Lord Chatham's character was *Vanity*, this concealment of himself was not very likely to take place. Besides, we have no specimens of Lord C.'s style which prove that he could write like Junius. We have no evidence that he was supereminently energetic with his pen.

In the subjoined dialogue in the shades between the great Earl of Chatham and his son William Pitt, the administration of the latter meets the approbation of the parent; and we are left to infer, if we choose, that such an administration could not have been unwise.

Art. 37. *The Beauties of Tom Brown*; Consisting of Humorous Pieces in Prose and Verse, selected from the Works of that Satirical and lively Writer. To which is prefixed a Life of the Author by the late Charles Henry Wilson, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Hughes, &c.

Tom Brown was a writer of considerable acquirements, talents, and notoriety in the seventeenth century, and possessed a fund of humour which was adapted to the taste of those days: but we apprehend that he is now little known; his satire, his descriptions, and his allusions, have become in many instances inappropriate and obsolete; and the gross licence of the generality of his writings does not induce us to wish for their revival. The Editor of these *Beauties* has certainly rejected the most offensive of Tom's lucubrations, but he

has not kept even this small selection wholly free from objectionable effusions, as the Satire on Woman and the tale from Boccace will evince; and we should think that his time might have been better employed.

Art. 38. *The Lancashire Gazetteer*: An Alphabetically arranged Account of the Hundreds, Market Towns, Boroughs, Parishes, Townships, Hamlets, Gentleman's Seats, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains. Moors, Commons, Mosses, Antiquities, &c. in the County Palatine of Lancaster. Together with Historical Descriptions of the Chief Places, with their Fairs, Markets, Local and Metropolitan Distances, Charters, Church Livings, Patrons, &c. By Joseph Aston, Author of the Manchester Guide. 12mo. Boards. Longman and Co.

The copious title of this work sufficiently explains its object, and we doubt not that it will be found useful by those who wish to have particular information respecting the County of Lancaster. The places of small consequence are barely mentioned, with their situation and distance from the next principal town: but of those of greater importance some particulars are stated, and the larger towns are concisely described.

Art. 39. *The Travels of Humanus*, in Search of the Temple of Happiness; an Allegory. To which is subjoined, The Manuscript, an Interlude, dedicated to the Readers of the above. By William Lucas. 12mo. pp. 260. 4s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1809.

Life is here supposed to have a thousand gates, each of which promises a path to happiness: but the Traveller, in trying which is the true road, meets with several disappointments. Allured by beautiful prospects, and deceitful advisers, he attempts to arrive at happiness with the votaries of Pleasure, of Fame, and of Riches, but by experience finds that he cannot reach it by the roads which they pursue. At length, however, he attends to the voice of truth, and by her is taught the way to attain the desired object.—The allegory is written in a pleasing manner, and contains much instruction for young persons.

Art. 40. *Adam and Margaret*; or the cruel Father punished for his unnatural Conduct to his innocent Daughter. A Narrative of real Incidents, with some Reflections, and a Proposal for cultivating a Department of Literature to be entitled Private Biography. By Alexander Molleson. 8vo. pp. 40. 1s. 6d. Constable and Co. 1809.

We have in this short tale an exhibition of the dreadful effects of habitual intoxication. The father, who in his younger years was quiet and industrious, afterward attached himself to bad company, frequented clubs, became a monster to his family and an outcast from society, and at length suffered premature death occasioned by distress. The author declares that no particulars are related for which he cannot vouch.

In the proposals for *Private Biography* are many pertinent remarks, worthy the attention of those who delight to depict the human character, and form lessons for conduct in life.

Art. 41. *William Tell*; or *Switzerland delivered*, by the Chevalier de Florian, Member of the Royal Academies of Paris, Madrid, Florence, &c. &c. A posthumous Work. To which is prefixed, the *Life of the Author* by Jauffret. Translated from the French. By William B. Hewetson, Author of "*the Blind Boy*," "*the Fallen Minister*," &c. &c. 12mo. pp. 115. 5s. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1809.

Although living in solitude, and devoted to literary pursuits, M. de Florian experienced the sad effects of the revolutionary regime of his country, and was torn from his peaceful retreat and dragged to a prison. In order to employ himself while suffering the rigours of confinement, he conceived and executed the plan of celebrating the Swiss Hero of Liberty. The subject of his work must be interesting, as it is that to which Switzerland owed the happiness which it so long enjoyed in the union of its Cantons. The sentiments are also pure, and the descriptions are pleasing: but both of them partake too much of the melancholy hue which they received from the author's situation when he wrote. The style is poetic-prose; which, although in repute in France, is not so popular in England; and the pleasure which a reader will derive from a perusal of the tale will, in a great measure, depend on his taste in this respect.

Art. 42. *Zoological Anecdotes*; or *Authentic and Interesting Facts relative to the Lives, Manners, and Economy of the Brute Creation*, exhibiting the most striking Instances of the Intelligence, Sagacity, social Disposition, and extraordinary Capacities of various Animals, both in their natural and domestic States. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. 6d. Boards. Colburn. 1808.

Those persons who are fond of perusing instances of sagacity in the brute species will find this work a very acceptable present. The author has left no part of the world unexplored, in order to extend the entertainment of his readers. Many of the instances recorded are really surprizing; those of the Dog are the most numerous; yet considerable notice is taken of the Cat, the Elephant, the Ape, the Hare, and several other animals. Young minds may reap considerable improvement from a perusal of these volumes, since they will hence be disposed to treat brute animals with due humanity, a virtue which too many individuals often neglect.

Art. 43. *Riches and Poverty*; a Tale. By Miss Barrell. 12mo. pp. 212. 5s. Boards. Tipper.

In this tale, Miss Barrell endeavours to pourtray, with vivid colours, the all-commanding power of wealth over interested minds. The Heroine, while favoured with the gifts of fortune even in prospect, is caressed, flattered, and adored: but no sooner is she reported to be assailed by the clouds of adversity, than she is overwhelmed with disappointment, neglect, and insult. Though mer-

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cenary motives, however, too much influence the world, let us rejoice that some such disinterested characters may be found in it as Mr. Halville and Sir Edward Wybrow. The story is well told, and would be still more interesting had it not been so much extended.

Art. 44. *Essay on Sepulchres: or a Proposal for erecting some Memorial of the illustrious Dead in all Ages, on the Spot where their Remains have been interred.* By William Godwin. 8vo. pp. 16. Miller. 1809.

"Man passeth away," and, in process of time, every memorial of him. While one poet reminds us that "Nature's copy's not eternal," another attests a fact equally notorious:—

*"Data sunt ipsis quoque fata sepulchris."*

Mr. Godwin seems to lament the latter rather than the former. The impressions of Dr. Johnson, on his visit to Iona, were similar to those which this feeling writer experienced when standing on spots that had been consecrated by the illustrious dead; and his reflections tend to corroborate the observation, "that whatever makes the distant and the past to predominate over the present elevates us in the rank of thinking beings." We regard this essay, however, rather as a play of genius than as a serious proposal: but the subject is placed in several affecting points of view; and if the remarks be too sentimental and romantic for the million, a few readers may be found who will be electrified by them, and will thank the author for this *meditation among the Tombs*:—which, unlike other productions of Mr. Godwin's pen, is more in the style of *antient piety* than of *modern philosophy*.

#### SINGLE SERMON.

Art. 45. *The Obligation and Utility of Public Worship; a Discourse delivered at the Opening of the Old Jewry Chapel, in Jewin Street, December 10, 1809; and published at the Request of the Society.* By Abraham Rees, D. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 1s. Longman and Co.

It is impossible, within the narrow limits of a sermon, to state the duty and importance of social worship with more clearness and energy than Dr. Rees has displayed on the present occasion. The different points of view, in which he has placed this subject, give it the highest interest; and though the remarks, with which he introduces and concludes his discourse, more particularly apply to his congregation and to himself, yet the general observations, by which he endeavours to enforce the resolution in the text, (Neh. x. 32.) *We will not forsake the house of God*, are universally applicable, and merit the consideration of the present age, in which an indifference to public worship seems to be alarmingly prevalent. We hope that the exhortations of this *Master in Israel* will make a deep impression on Parents, and on the rising generation; for on social religion much of social virtue necessarily depends.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

We have received from Dr. Kentish some strictures on the review of his *Essay on Baths* which appeared in our number for November. The Doctor is much offended with our critique on his description of the skin; and we accordingly referred to our remarks on that subject: but, after an attentive consideration of them, we maintain that we were authorized in our animadversions, and we abide by our assertion that the description of the skin given by Dr. Kentish is erroneous. We seem, however, to have excited the author's indignation in the most lively manner, by our objection to his newly discovered *blushing membrane*, a name which he has chosen to apply to the *rete mucosum*. We are sorry that we cannot assent to his speculations on this subject: but we remain unconvinced by the ingenuity and novelty of his hypothesis. Whether he be right in his *witty* and *polite* insinuation, respecting the inaptitude of Reviewers to experience the sensation of blushing, is a point of too delicate a nature for us to decide.

We have also been favoured with a letter on the same subject from another correspondent, with whose respectability as a practitioner we are well acquainted. We assure this gentleman that his communications will always be regarded with the attention which they merit; and that, if we ever inadvertently commit any critical injustice, we shall feel ourselves bound in honour to make an explicit avowal and correction of the fault: but, in the present instance, we are not sensible of any inaccuracy on our part. Dr. L. will pardon us for not entering into a discussion of the matter in this place; and he will permit us to add that, without any depreciation of his talents, we may suppose him to be unacquainted with many of the modern discoveries in physiology and anatomy. Haller himself, were he again to appear among us, must condescend to become a pupil.

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It would have given us much pleasure to administer to 'the vanity' of C. T. M., alias *Constantia*, if we could have done it conscientiously: but we acknowledge that such homage appeared to us to be incompatible with our duty; and we hope that our fair correspondent will forgive us. At our age, gallantry is not very enthusiastic; and at hers, if we may judge from circumstances, the love of praise should not be very predominant.

## NOTICE.

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☞ *All the deficient Numbers of the MONTHLY REVIEW having now been re-printed, any imperfection in copies of this work may be supplied, on application to the publishers. A few complete sets, from 1749 to the present time, may also be procured from the principal Booksellers.*

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\* \* The Appendix to Vol. LX. of the M. R. is published with this Number, and contains accounts of many interesting and important continental productions; together with the Title and Index for the Volume.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For FEBRUARY, 1810.

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**ART. I.** *Lectures on Painting*, delivered at the Royal Academy of Arts; with a Letter on the Proposal for a public Memorial of the Naval Glory of Great Britain. By the late John Opie, Esq. Professor in Painting to the Academy. To which are prefixed a Memoir by Mrs. Opie, and other Accounts of Mr. Opie's Talents and Character. 4to. pp. 259. 11. 4s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

THE honours which have been paid, in late years, to the character and memory of our distinguished painters, appear to us to be a happy omen of the progress of English art; since the sensibility, which is necessary to the attainment of excellence in this profession, will find its strongest motive and its best reward in the applause and esteem of enlightened contemporaries. Mere encouragement to the artist will certainly do much: but unless that kind of respect be exhibited towards the man, which, by admitting the liberality of his pursuits and the usefulness of his exertions, teaches him to feel similar respect for himself and his occupation, the higher and prouder intellectual efforts will rarely be achieved. We rejoice, therefore, to contemplate Reynolds as the companion of Burke and Johnson, or to look on Romney as the equal friend of Thurlow; and we cordially sympathize in the regard which was excited by Opie during his life, as well as in the ennobling sorrows which followed him to the grave.

The mind of this promising and powerful artist is portrayed, in the volume before us, by several hands which are well qualified for the task: but the most considerable sketch is drawn by a disconsolate and admiring widow, who "bears her sorrows proudly," and, in the midst of severe distress, glows with conscious satisfaction in the certainty that her 'name will descend with Mr. Opie's to posterity.' In the execution of her pious and honourable office, we will venture to guarantee this lady against the criticisms of which she expresses some apprehension; and we shall think, for our own part, that we best promote her intention of reflecting lustre on the memory of

her husband, by laying before our readers a short abstract of his history.

John Opie was born in May 1761, in the parish of St. Agnes, not far from Truro in Cornwall, of reputable parents, his father and his grandfather having been master-carpenters in that neighbourhood, and his mother being of a good family. He was early distinguished by a strong understanding, and by rapidity of learning ; both which qualities are exemplified by the fact of his being able, at ten years of age, to solve various difficult problems in Euclid, and in a still more extraordinary manner by his becoming a schoolmaster when he was scarcely twelve years old. The circumstances, which imparted to his mind its decisive and permanent bias, are thus related by Mr. Hoare :

' Emulation appears to have first lighted up the ready flame. About the tenth year of his age, seeing one of his companions, whose name was Mark Oates (now a captain in the marine service), engaged in drawing a butterfly, he looked eagerly, in silence, at the performance : on being asked what he was thinking of, he replied, " he was thinking that he could draw a butterfly, if he was to try, as well as Mark Oates." He accordingly made the experiment, and triumphed ; and he returned home to his father's house in high spirits, on account of the victory he had obtained.

' From this moment the bent of his talents was determined. It happened soon afterwards, that his father being employed in the repairs of a gentleman's house in Truro, young Opie attended him : in the parlour hung a picture of a *Farm-yard*, probably of humble execution, but of sufficient merit to attract his notice ; and he took every opportunity of stealing from his father's side to contemplate the beauties of this performance, which, in his eye, were of the highest class. His father, catching him in one of these secret visits, corrected him ; but this had little effect ; he was soon again at the door of the parlour, where being seen by the mistress of the house, he was, by her interference, permitted to view the picture without interruption. On his return home in the evening, his first care was to procure canvass and colours, and he immediately began to paint a resemblance of the *Farm-yard*. The next day he returned to the house, and again in the evening resumed his task at home. In this manner, in the course of a few days, by the force of memory only, he transmitted to his own canvass a very tolerable copy of the picture.'

Another anecdote of the same kind is preserved by Mrs. Opie :

' One Sunday afternoon, while his mother was at church, Mr. Opie, then a boy of ten or eleven years old, fixed his materials for painting in a little kitchen, directly opposite the parlour, where his father sat reading the bible. He went on drawing till he had finished every thing but the head, and when he came to that, he frequently ran



ran into the parlour to look up in his father's face. He repeated this extraordinary interruption so often, that the old man became quite angry, and threatened to correct him severely if he did the like again. This was exactly what the young artist wanted. He wished to paint his father's eyes when lighted up, and sparkling with indignation, and having obtained his end, he quietly resumed his task. He had completed his picture before his mother's return from church, and on her entering the house he set it before her. She knew it instantly; but, ever true to her principles, she was very angry with him for having painted on a Sunday, thereby profaning the Sabbath-day. The child however was so elated by his success, that he disregarded her remonstrance, and hanging fondly round her neck, he was alive only to the pleasure she had given him by owning the strength of the resemblance. At this moment his father entered the room, and recognizing his own portrait immediately highly approved his son's amusement during the afternoon, (parental pride conquering habitual piety awhile,) and exhibited the picture with ever new satisfaction to all who came to the house, while the story of his anger at interruptions so happily excused and accounted for, added interest to his narrative, and gratified still more the pride of the artist.'

The first patron and instructor of the young artist was Dr. Wolcot, much more generally known under his poetical name, *Peter Pindar*, who greatly forwarded his studies in the country, and advised him to try his fortune in London. Before we follow him to the metropolis, however, we must state one fact more, which places in the strongest light his filial affection and the manly independence of his mind. He had become, in some sort, an itinerant portrait-painter through the neighbouring towns; and

'One of these expeditions was to Padstow, whither he set forward, dressed, as usual, in a boy's plain short jacket, and carrying with him all proper apparatus for portrait painting. Here, amongst others, he painted the whole household of the ancient and respectable family of *Prideaux*; even to the dogs and cats of the family. He remained so long absent from home, that some uneasiness began to arise on his account, but it was dissipated by his returning dressed in a handsome coat, with very long skirts, laced ruffles, and silk stockings. On seeing his mother, he ran to her, and, taking out of his pocket twenty guineas, which he had earned by his pencil, he desired her to keep them; adding that, in future, he should maintain himself.'

In our great metropolis, he was for some time regarded with astonishment, and excited general observation. The early productions of his self-taught genius obtained for him the title of the *painting Chatterton*: but, though he strongly resembled that wonderful poet in arduour and perseverance, a just distinction is claimed in favour of his moral character; and, instead

of deserting the family who depended on him, from any first emotions of disgust, he had the happiness of seeing a mother and sister as much benefited as they must have been delighted by his prosperity. The history of his progress in the art is not here particularly traced; nor are we informed of the incidents which first established his character as an eminent painter, or of the first pictures by which he obtained praise. The earliest and for many years the only specimen of his literary ability was a life of Reynolds, inserted in Dr. Wolcot's edition of Pilkington's Dictionary of Painters, which would have formed an acceptable article in the thin volume now before us. The importance of the subject proves the Doctor's high estimation of Opie's judgment and knowledge, while the manner in which the work was accomplished attests that he was not deceived.

Mr. Opie's industry was at all times unremitting. In summer he was in his painting room at eight o'clock, and in winter at half past eight; and he pursued the labour of his profession generally till half past four or five o'clock. Though no picture was bespoken, he never indulged in idleness, but employed himself on an unfinished portrait of his wife, in order to improve his practice, or in sketching designs that might assist his invention. His exertions were not even paralyzed by that neglect to which all professions are occasionally subject, but which is perhaps in none felt so severely as in that which he pursued: but it may surprize the generality of readers to be informed that a man so justly and uniformly celebrated for many years past was 'almost wholly without employment,' after having exhibited a most popular picture in 1801; and that he very narrowly escaped adding one more name to the melancholy list of painters whose merit has passed unrewarded, and whose talents, generally speaking, have perished undiscovered. In mentioning his incessant perseverance, and the high standard of excellence at which he aimed, we ought not to omit Mrs. Opie's statement that, during the nine years of their union, she 'never saw him satisfied with any one of his productions;' and often has he, flying from works that disappointed him, though they probably afterward formed the delight of the public, exclaimed in an agony of despondence, "I am the most stupid of created beings, and I never, never shall be a painter as long as I live."

It cannot be necessary to describe with minuteness the places where and the occasions on which Mr. Opie distinguished himself, in the eye of an applauding public, as one of the first painters of the English school: but, as some of his most successful productions are here enumerated, we may properly

properly transcribe the list, though it does not include his portraits. Among his best historical pictures, are reckoned the *Murder of James I., King of Scotland*, the *Presentation in the Temple*, the *Death of David Rizzio*, *Arthur taken prisoner*, *Arthur and Hubert*, *Juliet in the Garden*, the *Escape of Gil Blas*, and *Musidora*. The "Historic Gallery" contained a fine painting by him, worthy, we should have thought, of a similar distinction, — *Boadicea addressing the assembled Britons*, — of which the composition was perhaps open to censure, but the spirit and expression of particular figures were admirable. We must here repeat the complaint, which we lately made with respect to Romney, that we are furnished with no direction to the collections in which the great pictures of this artist may now be inspected.

The death of Mr. Opie was produced by an affection of the Spine, which baffled medical skill, on the 19th of April 1807, a month after he had delivered the last of his four lectures at the Royal Academy. His remains were deposited near those of Sir Joshua Reynolds, in St. Paul's cathedral; where he had, at an early age, expressed a wish to be buried.

To these lectures we now pass, without paying particular attention to the eloquent and judicious eulogies which are properly preserved in this volume. In his Academical addresses, Opie poured forth all that his vigorous mind had embraced on the general principles of his Art, which he divides into six branches; four of them he denominates the *practical* or *physical* Elements of Painting, — *Design*, or *Drawing*; *Colouring*; *Chiaro 'Scurio*; and *Composition*: — the other two branches, *Invention* and *Expression*, he calls *intellectual*. We cannot enter into an examination of his particular views, which appear to us to be distinguished by strong sense and sound judgment: but we shall extract a few passages, which may at once instruct the student and inform the general reader. He thus powerfully displays the native dignity of his Art, and warns the profane against a rash intrusion into its mysteries:

' Impressed as I am at the present moment with a full conviction of the difficulties attendant on the practice of painting, I cannot but feel it also my duty to caution every one who hears me, against entering into it from improper motives, and with inadequate views of the subject; as they will, thereby, only run a risk of entailing misery and disgrace on themselves and their connections during the rest of their lives. Should any student therefore happen to be present, who has taken up the art on the supposition of finding it an easy and amusing employment — any one who has been sent into the Academy by his friends, on the idea that he may cheaply acquire an honourable and profitable profession — any one who has mistaken a petty kind of imitative, monkey talent for genius — any one who hopes by

it to get rid of what he thinks a more vulgar or disagreeable situation, to escape confinement at the counter or the desk—any one urged merely by vanity or interest,—or, in short, impelled by any consideration but a real and unconquerable passion for excellence ;—let him drop it at once, and avoid these walls and every thing connected with them as he would the pestilence ; for if he have not this unquenchable liking, in addition to all the requisites above enumerated, he may pine in indigence, or sculk through life as a hackney likeness-taker, a copier, a drawing-master or pattern-drawer to young ladies, or he may turn picture-cleaner, and help Time to destroy excellencies which he cannot rival—but he must never hope to be, in the proper sense of the word, a painter.

' Strait is the gate and narrow is the way that leads to excellence, and few there be that find it. True as this undoubtedly is in all cases, in no instance will it be found so applicable as the present ; for in no profession will the student have so many difficulties to encounter—in no profession so many sacrifices to make—in no profession will he have to labour so hard, and study so intensely—and in no profession is the reward of his talents so precarious and uncertain,—as is lamentably proved by every day's experience, and by every page of history.

' Let me not be told that, by such assertions, I am raising obstacles and throwing obstructions in the paths of men of genius, for to *such* obstacles act as a stimulus ; what quenches others gives them fire ; and I am confident a knowledge of the truth will in the end equally benefit the art and the artist. Should any one be discouraged by it, I will say to him, I have rendered you an essential service ; you will soon find some other situation better suited to your talents. But to those who can, undismayed, look all the difficulties in the face ; who have made up their minds to conquer ; who are ready to sacrifice their time, their ease, their pleasure, their profit, and devote themselves, soul and body, to the art, — in short, who cannot be restrained from the pursuit of it ; to those I will say, You alone are *worthy*. you alone are *likely* to succeed : You give the strongest proofs that can be obtained, of possessing all the necessary requisites, and there is every probability that you will do honour to your art, your country, and yourselves ; for nothing is denied to persevering and well-directed industry.'

We think that Mr. Opie is singularly happy in tracing the gradual development of all the great faculties of the human mind that are applicable to painting, and very eloquent in drawing the characters of its most splendid luminaries. Leonardo da Vinci is thus introduced, after a rapid sketch of the early Florentine school :

' It would be as tedious as useless to recount the stammering and babbling of the art in it's infant state. I shall therefore pass on to about 150 years after the death of Cimabue, when the dawning of an enlarged and liberal style of design began to appear at Florence ; when Massaccio, whose works are still in existence, produced figures  
which

which Raphael, in the zenith of his reputation, did not disdain to transplant into some of his most celebrated compositions; when the intricacies and difficulties of fore-shortening began in some measure to be understood and subdued; when colouring and composition were attempted by Andrea Verocchio, Andrea Mantegna, and Luca Signorelli of Cortona; and when, in short, all circumstances seemed to concur to usher in, with becoming splendour, Leonardo da Vinci, one of the first luminaries of modern art, and one of the most extraordinary of men.

'If it be true that "one science only will one genius fit," what shall we say to the man, who, master of all mental and all bodily perfections, equally excelled in painting, poetry, sculpture, architecture, chemistry, anatomy, mathematics, and philosophy; who renders credible all that has been related of the admirable Creighton; who attempted every thing and succeeded in every attempt; who, sailing round the world of art and science, touched at every port and brought home something of value from each?

'This was the glory of Leonardo, and this was also his weakness; for, equally in love with grandeur and littleness, beauty and deformity, character and caricature, he bestowed his attention on them all by turns, and soared or dived, as the caprice of the moment directed. His genius, however, gave the death-blow to flatness and insipidity, by the invention of that deep tone of colour, strength of shadow, and bold relief, which, afterwards carried to perfection, enchants us in the dreams of Correggio, and electrifies us in the mysterious visions of Rembrandt.

'Less profoundly learned in design, less lofty and comprehensive in conception than his great rival and contemporary M. Angelo, his celebrated cartoon of the horsemen contending for a standard is, nevertheless, one of the noblest inventions in the whole circle of modern art; it evinces a singular boldness and fertility of imagination, by the display of every attitude of the human body on horseback, in the various actions of striking, pulling, thrusting, warding, and evading a blow, combined with a felicity and energy, at once picturesque, interesting and surprising: the whole is animated, every part is in motion, and we witness, by turns, the collected coolness of true courage, the devouring malevolence of rage, the contending emotions of hope and fear, the exultation of assured victory, and the despairing gasp of inevitable death. The horses, conceived with the fire of a true poet, and executed with the science of an anatomist, rear and plunge into the battle with a fury equal to that of their riders: in short, this composition was altogether unexampled at the time, and unrivalled for ages after, till it suggested to Rubens the first hint for those magnificent groups of horses and figures, in his battles of the Amazons, and of Constantine and Maxentius; and for those astonishing masses of men and animals in commotion, his huntings of the lion, the tiger, the crocodile and the hippopotamus.'

In truth, we find that all the *characters* of the various artists here described were marked by us for selection, on the first perusal: but, as our limits forbid the indulgence of our incli-

nation, we must be satisfied with the following just, discerning, and energetic observations on the merits and defects of Rembrandt :

‘ At the head of the Dutch school, and foremost amongst those who, in the opinion of some critics, cut the knot instead of untying it, and burglariously entered the Temple of Fame by the window, stands the name of Rembrandt, called *Van Rhyne* from his birth place, a village on that river near Leyden. His father, a miller, put his son under one Lastman, a tolerable painter of Amsterdam ; but by what means he was led to adopt that peculiar manner which distinguishes his works, is not now to be discovered. Of his singularities it is, however, recorded that he used to ridicule the antiques, and the ordinary methods of study, and that he had a large collection of strange dresses, old armour, and rich stuffs, which he called his antiques, and which it is obvious he made use of, as models in his principal works. There is, also, a story related of him, which shows him to have been no less a humorist than a genius ; which is, that finding his works, at one period of his life, accumulating on his hands, he resolved to make a sale of them, but unfortunately, it seems, the public in Rembrandt’s time very much resembled the public at present, and scorned to buy the works of a living artist. In this dilemma he had no resource but to secrete himself, pretend to be dead, put his wife into widow’s mourning, and order a mock funeral. After this, his sale went on with uncommon success : when it was ended Rembrandt rose from the dead, to the great joy of his disconsolate wife, and received the congratulations of his friends on the happy termination of his excellent joke. Being, at another time, reproached for the boldness and roughness of his manner of laying on his colours, he replied, “ I am a painter, and not a dyer.”

‘ What was so happily said of Burke, might with equal truth be applied to Rembrandt :

“ Whose genius was such

That one never can praise it, or blame it, too much.”

‘ He seemed born to confound all rules and reasoning : with the most transcendent merits he combines the most glaring faults, and reconciles us to them ; he charms without beauty, interests without grace, and is sublime in spite of disgusting forms and the utmost vulgarity of character. His deficiencies would have fairly annihilated any other man, yet he still justly claims to be considered as a genius of the first class. Of *chiaro ’scuro* he ranged the whole extent, and exemplified all its effects in all its degrees, changes and harmonies, from the noon-day blaze to when the

“ Dying embers round the room

Teach light to counterfeit a gloom.”

‘ In richness and truth of colouring, in copiousness of invention and energy of expression, he equalled the greatest of his predecessors ; and whatever he attempted, he rendered with a degree of truth, of reality, of illusion, that defies all comparison. By these powers he seemed to be independent of his subject : it mattered not what he painted,

painted, his pencil, like the finger of Midas, turned every thing it touched to gold; it made defects agreeable, gave importance to trifles, and begat interest in the bosom of barrenness and insipidity itself.

‘But though thus gifted to dwell with nature in her simplest retirement, he was no less qualified, with a master’s hand and poet’s fire, to follow and arrest her in her wildest flights; all that was great, striking, and uncommon in her scenery, was familiar to him; yet he chiefly delighted in obscurity and repose; mystery and silence floated round his pencil, and dreams, visions, witcheries, and incantations he alone, with no less magic power, rendered probable, awful, and interesting. In short, so great and original were his powers, that he seems to be one, who would have discovered the art, had it never before existed.

‘Rembrandt, with all his powers, is a master whom it is most exceedingly dangerous to imitate; his excellencies are so fascinating, that we are apt first to forgive, and, lastly, to fall in love even with his faults, or, at least, to think the former cheaply purchased with the incumbrance of the latter. But let the student carefully remember, that the imitator of any individual master, like the imitator of individual nature, must never hope to occupy a station in the first class of artists; and that defects like those of Rembrandt, and most of the Dutch school, even if associated with equal excellence, can never hope to be forgiven a second time.’

The fearless originality of thought, and bold freedom of discussion, which are displayed in these lectures, form one of their most powerful charms. They express a just deference for every sort of talent, but no timid acquiescence in mere authority. Even the venerated name of Reynolds, which Mr. Opie sometimes defends with vehemence against petty cavils, affords no sanction to such opinions as he deems erroneous; and while an enthusiastic gaze is fixed on the highest excellencies of the noblest professors, with sentiments approaching to idolatry, a just and keen scrutiny is still devoted to the work of discrimination. Never was a stronger instance exhibited, of the similarity often remarked between an author and his works, and of that general character which pervades them all and assimilates them to each other. As a painter, as an author, and as a member of society, the same distinguishing qualities are prominent in the mind of Mr. Opie. His imagination was vigorous, but not playful; his judgment was correct, but his taste uncultivated; his simplicity was almost severe; and in him the total absence of artifice and affectation bordered perhaps too nearly on awkward coarseness. If we had much confidence in systems of physiognomy; we should say that the same character is found in the portrait, painted by himself, of which an engraving is prefixed to this volume. To us, the internal evidence of his lectures sufficiently con-

tradicts

tradicts the report of their not being exclusively his own; yet, as it existed, Mrs. Opie has properly encountered it by a formal contradiction.

**ART. II.** *A Translation of the Georgics of Publius Virgilius Maro, with the original Text; and Notes critical, and illustrative of ancient and modern Husbandry. By William Stawell, A.M., Rector of Kilmalooda, in the Diocese of Cork. Crown 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 18c8.*

**T**HE characters of the different English translations of the *Georgics* may be conveyed in few words. That of Dryden is incomparably the most poetical in the episodes, but is neither generally faithful as the version of an antient poem, nor interesting as an English composition. That of Warton is more perfect as a version, but strikingly inferior in the display of detached beauties. Mr. Sotheby has a much greater and more uniform command of poetical language than Warton, and he is more correct than Dryden: but he falls short of the excellence (which perhaps was never rivalled) that is so gloriously maintained by the father and founder of our rhyme, in his translations of all the more animated passages of those classical writers whom he has undertaken to imitate.

The present translator informs us that a large part of his work was written so long since as the year 1785, while he was an undergraduate in the university of Dublin; and he concludes his preface by observing that, 'if Mr. Sotheby's version had been accompanied with notes, his should never have seen the light.' As we cannot discover any improvement made in the juvenile labours of Mr. Stawell by subsequent revision, and as he seems to be conscious that the world wanted nothing but his notes, (which, to agricultural readers, we think, will prove valuable,) we are inclined to wish that he had suppressed the version. It is a painful duty to discountenance literary exertion, but it is much more cruel to encourage false hopes, and to stimulate ineffectual endeavours. We have not discovered a passage in the book before us which manifests true poetical genius: but, while it is barren of beauty, it is productive of manifold deformities.

In the first place, the author is either ignorant or entirely careless of metrical quantity; some knowlege of which is *perhaps* essential to a translator of Greek or Latin verse. We speak, however, diffidently on this subject; since all classical attainments have lately been discovered to be of little or no use after we have left school. We will, therefore, only hazard the remark that *it may be doubted*, whether the most *manly* author



be justified in calling Pănōpea, Pănōpe; Aminēan vines, Aminēan vines; Sperchius, Sperchūs; Taygētus, Taygētus; Cyllārus, Cyllārus; Tanāger, Tanāger; Onāger, Onāger (both mistakes arising from the Latin accusatives Tanāgrum, and Onāgrum); Tisiphōne, Tisiphōne, (a *furious* false quantity indeed!); and, to crown the climax of barbarism, Priāpus, Priāpus!!!

Let these errors be as trifling as the most sublime contempt for prosody can wish, still we would ask, with all due hesitation, whether it be within the pale of probability, or (to use another modest phrase of fashionable scepticism) in *the usual order of events*, that a translator, who has committed these errors, should have any relish for the poetical flow of his original? That Mr. Stawell has not been inspired by any such relish, the following lines will evince; they are taken at random from the volume:

‘ Why here of Libyan pastures should I tell,  
And cottages where shepherds seldom dwell?  
Roving both night and day they graze *abroad*  
The deserts long, for months without *abode*;  
So far outstretched extends the dreary ground,  
His house, his god, his arms, and Spartan hound,  
His Cretan bow, his all the shepherd bears:  
Thus the fierce Roman for his country dares;  
Equipped in armour for the deadly fray,  
He bears the cumbrous baggage in his way:  
As forward to the unthinking foe he’s bent,  
He’s formed in rank, and pitched at once his tent.’

Too many vulgarities of expression occur throughout this translation, which would keep in countenance the above lines; and we find ungrammatical constructions of the grossest nature: such as ‘thou bestowed,’ &c. &c. The pervading defect, however, is that insipid flatness which criticism refrains from censuring beyond a single quotation.

We have observed that the notes of Mr. Stawell afford some ground for praise; and that portion of them, which relates to the comparative state of antient and modern husbandry, will considerably interest the reader whose taste leads him to the discussion of similar subjects. Mr. S. writes *con amore* on rural matters; and the gentleman-farmer (that most sanguine, and generally most unsuccessful, of experimentalists,) may find materials, or at least hints, in this volume, for the formation of new plans and projects of agricultural improvement.

The critical knowledge of Mr. Stawell might be compressed in a nutshell. His original remarks are few indeed, and of little value; and his citations from Ruæus, and other well-known commentators, are of no use but that of consuming paper

paper with the copies of twice-told tales. His historical and geographical illustrations are such as Lempriere and Adam furnish; and we must caution future commentators on the classics against telling us, with Mr. Stawell, that the antients, according to Pliny, called Africa *Libya*; or that Hippomanes, according to Aristotle, was a libidinous furor among mares.

We gladly extract from Mr. Stawell's preface a passage which is indicative of better judgment. After some sensible remarks on the dignity of Virgil's leading subject, Agriculture, and on the peculiar propriety of his chusing it at the time in which he wrote,—when the charms of his poetry might be rendered subservient to the noblest purposes of state-policy, by recalling the attention of his fellow-citizens, immersed as they had been in military cares, to the neglected cultivation of their country,—Mr. S. proceeds to some more particular observations, in answer to Seneca's criticism on the *Georgics*, and in defence of Virgil's plan of addressing himself through so enchanting a medium to his countrymen. He justly urges the inutility of a treatise on agricultural subjects, addressed solely to the cultivators of the soil, and thus continues:

The experience of our own times will convince us, that from the operating husbandman (who proceeds this year as he has generally done in former years) much correction is not to be expected, since he will not submit to the hazard of experiment, were his temper docile enough to catch the improvements of the day; while, under the guidance of the well informed and the higher ranks of society, every possible amelioration may be introduced.—By considering the tenures of landed property in Rome, and remarking by whom the culture of the soil was directed, we shall have an additional reason to applaud the judgment of Virgil. In the early days of the Republic we recollect that the plough was often decorated with the laurels of her dictators and conquerors; who cultivated their farms, which were limited by law to a certain extent, with their own hands. Even in Cato's time, though the earth was cultivated by bond slaves and free servants, yet there were *coloni*, who were also proprietors of the soil. In later periods we find that there were certain cultivators called *liberi coloni*, or un-restrained farmers, who paid rent, and were at liberty to manage their farms according to their own opinions; besides those denominated *colitores*, who (let it be considered) were subject to the proprietors' instructions, and were supplied by them with stock, seed, and utensils, according to stated conditions; being allowed a certain portion of the crop for the labour they bestowed: it is expressly mentioned by one of the Roman writers, that where the instruction of the proprietor should happen to lead the cultivator into a species of husbandry not so productive as the usual mode, it would be unreasonable for him to expect his stipulated proportion of the crop. If the poet, therefore, in this perfect model he has left us, was called on to introduce precepts adapted to the habits and capacity of the most unpolished, he also found it necessary to excite attention by  
embellishments

embellishments addressed to the most refined. To attain his object fully, his expressions and thoughts have the simplicity suited to rural scenery; the precision, and freedom from redundancy, that characterize a philosophical treatise; and the majesty that elevates the epic. He has followed the great examples of instruction given us in the early ages of the world; insinuating truth by music and poetry through the avenues of the imagination,—and thus has wisely softened the magisterial severity of his office.

‘The *Georgics* have been called by one of our poets, with some truth, the highly ornamented work of a political partisan. The policy of Augustus, after subduing his rivals and the remote enemies of the Roman name, became decidedly pacific; he wished to restore the sacred plough to its honours; reflecting that it was the first duty of a prince to provide food for his subjects, and that the cultivators of the earth are of all others the most moral and the most contented part of the community. In entering upon his subject, the mind of Virgil was stored with Greek and Roman literature, and with those practical maxims which he was enabled to deduce from the cultivation of his own farm in the neighbourhood of Mantua. Notwithstanding the illusions of his poetry, that almost lift us above sublunary speculations,—which give to plants the sensations of animals, and to animals the actions and thoughts of men,—and make every farmer, as he reads, think the better of himself because he is a farmer; yet will he unavoidably compare his own cultivation with the precept of the poet; he will be reminded of practices that pass before his eyes every day, the contemplation of which, besides the entertainment, may lead to the most useful results.—Fallows, rotation of crops, deep and shallow ploughing, cross-ploughing, irrigation, draining, burning the soil; treatment of domestic animals; planting; and the various kinds of propagation, natural and artificial: these are topics that will transport the literary husbandman to the bosom of his own domain, and give him an interest there which he never before possessed.

‘Virgil, we are told, spent seven years in the composition of this exquisite poem, and during the whole of his life afterwards was in the habit of correcting it. To transmute the sentiments of such a production with an equal delicacy of expression, free at once from poverty and exuberance, is an attempt sufficiently arduous.’

Some modest expressions follow; and we cannot help wishing that they had influenced this writer, while they were yet in manuscript, to withhold his version of the *Georgics* from the public. Had he printed his agricultural notes solely, and offered them as a supplement to Professor Martyn's edition, or as an attempt to supply Mr. Sotheby's translation with that apparatus of which no merit as a poet can justify his total omission, we should have had the pleasure of recommending the result of Mr. Stawell's labours as an useful addition to literature; and we should not have been called to execute the disagreeable duty of giving publicity to censure so little qualified as the present.

ART. III. *The Georgics of Publius Virgilius Maro*, translated into English Blank Verse, by James R. Deare, LL.B., Vicar of Bures in the County of Suffolk, &c. &c. Crown 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

IN our last article, we had the misfortune of witnessing the torture inflicted on the noblest didactic poet of antiquity by the Rector of Kilmalooda, in the diocese of Cork; and we have now to stand by, (but not patiently stand by!) and see him put to the rack by the Vicar of Bures, in the county of Suffolk. "Fair play is a jewel," according to the old adage; and really we cannot endure these fearful odds of two to one. To descend, however, to the plain prose of these respective translators, we scarcely remember to have seen so equal a degree of mediocrity attained by any rivals for the poetical prize. Their species of verse is indeed different, the one being almost the pure doggrel, and the other as nearly the genuine blank. For this last anomaly or rather abortion of verse, sundry qualifications are especially requisite: the first of which, perhaps, in order as in dignity, is a lofty disdain for the usual arrangement of the English language. The Latin or inverted collocation of words is of the very essence of blank verse. How would the following sentence, otherwise, be distinguished from familiar prose? excepting, indeed, the majestic and appropriate exclamation, O!

' Beans in the spring; then too, O Lucern, thee  
The crumbling glebe receives.'—

Deare's *Georgics*, Book 1st.

Let us mark, also, how the bombastic or swaggering style of prose (another qualification of most blank versifiers) is adorned by this beautiful figure of inversion;—this classical position of the verb at the end of the sentence:—

' Lastly, the import of the Evening late,  
Whence drives the wind the clouds serene, and what  
The meditation of the humid South,  
The Sun will signify.'

Ibid.

The passage which follows this significant paragraph is one of the best in Mr. Deare's translation; and, as he particularly calls our attention (in his rambling and unconnected preface, which he strangely imagines will compensate for the want of notes,) to the famous episodes in the *Georgics*, we deem it fair to select his version of the first of these episodes, namely, that which refers to the prodigies attending the death of Cæsar:

————— ' Who dares arraign  
The sun of falsehood? him, who oft foretels  
The approach of civil tumult, or the growth

Of

Of embryo treasons and of hidden wars.  
 He, on the death of Cæsar, pitied Rome,  
 Veiling in rusty clouds his glorious head,  
 While impious mortals fear'd eternal night.  
 ' Though at that time the earth herself, the sea,  
 And dogs obscene, and evil-boding birds  
 Gave their dire omens. Oft we then beheld  
 Ætna, from her unbroken furnaces,  
 Burst o'er Cyclopiæ fields in fiery waves  
 And roll down melted rocks and globous flame :—  
 Through all her welkin rude Germania heard  
 The din of arms :—with unaccustom'd throes  
 Trembled the Alps ; and, through the silent groves,  
 A mighty voice was heard distinct ; and oft  
 In various forms pale ghosts revisited  
 The shades of night ; and, omen dire ! beasts spake :—  
 The rivers stop their course ; wide yawns the earth ;  
 Weeps in its shrine the troubled ivory ;  
 And from the brazen statues roll big drops  
 Of exudation.—O'er his banks contemn'd  
 Eridanus, monarch of rivers, bursts,  
 Ingulphing forests in his mad career,  
 And in one common ruin bearing off  
 Stalls and their herds together. Then, nor ceased  
 The threatening fibre to appal the minds  
 Of Roman augurs ; or the wells to flow  
 With blood ; or loud through cities to be heard  
 By night the howling wolf ; nor e'er before  
 From skies serene so oft blue lightnings flash'd ;  
 Nor e'er so frequent the portentous blaze  
 Of comets glared : then, too, a second time  
 Philippi saw the Roman arms engaged  
 In mutual conflict, nor did Gods disdain  
 That twice Emathia's, and the extended plains  
 Of Hæmus twice, should fatten with our blood.  
 Hence, on those lands, in some yet distant age,  
 The farmer, labouring with his crooked plough,  
 The rust-corroded javelin shall find ;  
 Or with his ponderous harrow's tooth shall strike  
 On empty helmets, and with wonder view  
 The giant remnants of the broken grave.'

The last line is almost too sublime for our comprehension ; and we cannot entirely adapt it to the original,

" *Grandiæque effosis mirabitur ossa sepulchris.*"

However, the whole passage, with the drawback of these inversions and tumours, is tolerably rendered, and somewhat superior to any thing in Mr. Stawell.

Mr. Deare informs us that this volume is his first offering to literature. If it be not also the last, we seriously recommend the following strictures to his consideration.

We

We have already instanced Mr.D.'s propensity to the inflated, or false sublime; and for his improvement, we will remind him of some farther examples of this defect:—

'The plenitude of thy munificence'—

Georgic Second.

'A hundred tongues, a century of mouths,

An iron voice'—

Ibid.

which expressions should have been rather lowered than heightened from the original, in order to render them tolerable to modern taste.

'Not here shall fiction's song thy sated ear  
Nor long exordium's tortuous phrase detain.'

These are "*les égaremens de la plume et de l'encre*" of a very young writer, and exhibit lamentable specimens of both the failings which we have reprobated above.

The praises of Italy, the second beautiful episode in the *Georgics*, are not so well expressed as the passage which we last quoted, in the English panegyric of Mr. Deare. Indeed, it is tame and spiritless, except where it is elevated by forced and unnatural phraseology; such as that which disfigures the following lines:

'No rabid tigers, no remorseless race  
Of lions here—nor does fell aconite  
Beguile the wretched herbiast, nor along  
The affrighted fields do scaly serpents roll  
Their vasty folds, nor of such longitude  
Immense, upcoil'd, their spiral height erect.'

Georgic Second.

The beautifully descriptive, nay majestic line,

"*Fluminaque antiquos subter labentia muros,*"

is lost in the unmeaning brevity and pedantic Latinism of Mr. D.'s—translation we cannot call it,

'And subtermural streams;—

Ibid.

and the truly poetical feeling of that invocation—

"*Me verò primum, dulces ante omnia Muses,  
Quarum sacra fero, ingenti percussus amore,  
accipiant,*"—

thus dwindles into insignificance, and becomes debased by vulgarity, though with a partial imitation of Milton:

'But me, 'bove all, smit with the unbounded love  
Of sacred verse, may the sweet Muses hear!'

From

From the general correctness with which the proper names in this version are anglicized, (though we must pointedly except Parth for Parthian, and some other barbarisms,) we did not expect either Aminëan or Sperchylus from Mr. Deare. Nor indeed did we wish to be recalled to Mr. Stawell, or to any thing resembling his—

“ Steed-famed Epidaure, and Taygētus hounds.”

We turned to the lines on a country life, hoping to meet with some relief from the preceding sufferings which Mr. D. had been pleased to inflict on us : but alas ! we found his muse *semper eadem*; or, as the words have been appositely for our present purpose translated, *worse and worse*. Like the moral character of Jonathan Wild, Mr. D.'s verse continues to the end the same as it began,

—— “ *Servatur ad inum*

*Qualis ab incepto processerit, et sibi constat.*”

We have not indeed such lines as

“ Nor Dacians from conspiring Ister 'pall”—

Stawell's Georgics.

as a translation of

“ *Nec conjurato descendens Dacus ab Istro :*”

but we have

‘ Not the fierce Dacian by his Ister sworn ;’

Deare's Do.

and also this brilliant specimen of the Bathos :

‘ Unknown to him the stern decrees of law,

And the mad Forum——and the public rolls ;’ *Ibid.*

together with the detestable imitation of certain hobbling poets, who think that discord is necessary to the variety of metrical harmony ;

‘ And hold the hoarse wave of greedy Acheron’—

which no more resembles a verse, than either of his late translators resembles Virgil.

With unfeigned pleasure we select some lines from Mr. Deare's description of the blessings of the husbandman, at the end of the 2d Georgic, which are pleasingly and naturally expressed :

‘ Sweet children cling around their father's neck

And share his envied kisses : o'er his hearth

Unsullied Chastity presides : his cows

From flowing udders pour their milky streams,

And on the joyful turf his thriving kids

Wage sportive battle with new budding horns.

*Himself* on holydays assumes the charge

Of festive rites, and with the rural choir,  
 Stretch'd on the turf around the sacred flame,  
 Pours rich libation from the roscate bowl,  
 And drinks in Bacchus' honor. At his voice  
 Contending herdsmen eye the lofty prize  
 In the elm suspended: flies the whizzing spear,  
 And village wrestlers bare their hardy limbs.'

We must add a few verses from the Scythian Winter in the third Georgic; where, with the exception of the awkwardness of the first line, which describes the rude huntsmen bearing home their prey, the passage has a good effect:

'These bear them home rejoicing, where themselves  
 Secure in subterranean caverns lodged,  
 Wear our their lazy-pacing hours, their hearths  
 High blazing with the spoils of oak, and elms  
 Roll'd whole and heap'd upon the fire: and here  
 The desperate die and circulating cups  
 Of spurious wine inspire their barbarous joy.  
 Such are the Hyperboreans, race untamed,  
 Whom Eurus buffets on Riphæan hills,  
 And slaughter'd beasts clothe with their tawny spoils.'

In the 'Plague,' also, at the end of this book, we find some spirited verses: but we have had 'Plague' enough already with this translation, and must decline, in the language of its author, to

'Reiterate our former vestiges.'

We will rather turn to the enchanting simile of the Nightingale, in the episode of Orpheus and Eurydice in the fourth Georgic: to which Mr. Deare has done some little justice; and, though we are sorry to "damn with faint praise," this is all that we can afford him:

'In poplar shades so Philomela mourns  
 Her ravish'd young, whom some obdurate clown  
 From her warm nest, e'en yet unfledged, hath dragg'd:  
 But she, sad mother, weeps the live-long night,  
 And from her lonely seat distracted swells,  
 Wide through the pitying grove, the notes of woe.'

Contrary to our intention, but for the sake of gratifying the most scrupulous candour, we will give Mr. Stawell's version of the same passage:

"So from the poplar, in lamenting strains,  
 For her lost young sad Philomel complains,  
 Which some rude peasant, with unfeeling breast,  
 Had marked, and torn unfeathered from the nest:  
 She weeps the night; sole-perched amid the grove,  
 Wailing the sorrows of her tortured love;—



Each falling note renews with fond despair,  
Warble the woods, and sighs the wounded air."

"Alliteration's apt and artful aid"

(as it has been well expressed, by a young poet of the day,) is here in vain implored, according to our opinion: but our readers may differ from us.

Both Warton and Sotheby (particularly the latter) far excel the above specimens: but Dryden has rendered the passage with unusual tenderness. We will not disgrace him by any comparison with the present candidates, or rather *suitors*, for fame, who have fruitlessly attempted to draw the bow of Ulysses.

It will be seen from our ampler extracts, and indeed from their nature, that we rather prefer Mr. Deare, even with the disadvantages of his blank verse, to Mr. Stawell: but it is that species of preference which would be given by a *bon-vivant*, who had a strong relish for Burgundy and Claret, to one sort of British wine over another: it is a preference hardly capable of definition, and certainly not worthy of acceptance.

We cannot conclude these articles, which are already too long for the merits or demerits of their immediate subjects, but scarcely sufficient for that important branch of literature which they remotely affect, without a parting word to authors respecting their translations of the classics.

Not to enter in this place into the lists of controversy with those Goths and Vandals, or Picts and Scots, who would decry ancient learning, we may assert that, even allowing the favourite object of these persons to be accomplished, namely, the abridgment if not the total change of the classical education of our public schools, it still remains a matter of consequence, or rather becomes a matter of greater consequence, whether the Greek and Latin writers be well or ill translated in our language. We shall confine ourselves to poetical translations, for the present; and we would ask any of our readers, who are blessed with that liberal feeling and taste which can result only from good education, whether the pleasure which they must all have felt in the perusal of Pope's Homer was not accompanied by many sensible advantages to the different powers of their minds; whether their imagination, their memory, and their judgment, were not all benefited by this delightful exercise?—With reference to many of Dryden's versions we may put the same question; and we may include the happy effects of some more modern translators. On the other hand, if Homer had been presented to us only by a Cowper, and if Virgil had slept in the tuneless numbers of a Stawell or a Deare,

what accession to our taste, what improvement of our understanding, could have been gained from the perusal of them? We would advise no author to attempt to transfuse the spirit of an illustrious antient poet into his native language, till by some original production, or minor attempt at translation, he has ascertained whether the sanction of public applause justifies his confidence in his own powers. Let him, above all, abstain from pre-occupied ground;—the *Æneid*, perhaps, is not included in this description: but such we must consider the *Georgics* of Virgil. Although they are not entirely pre-occupied by any one author, yet in every part they have been so much the object of several, that it would be more gratifying and useful to the literary world if a selection from Dryden, Warton, and Sotheby, were made by some humble critic, than that new attempts and new failures should swell the Annual Register of unsuccessful translations.

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A.A.T. IV. *The Beauties of England and Wales*; in original Delineations, topographical, historical, and descriptive of each County. Embellished with Engravings. Vol. VII. By Edward Wedlake Brayley. 8vo. pp. 782. 1l. 7s. 6d. Boards.—Vol. VIII. By Edward Wedlake Brayley. 8vo. pp. 756. 1l. 5s. Boards.—Vol. IX. By John Britton, F.S.A. 8vo. pp. 808. 1l. 5s. Boards. Verner and Co.

WHEN the former portions of this elegant work came before us, we felt disposed to speak in terms of commendation both of the design and the execution; and in reviewing the present we likewise esteem it our duty to express a favourable opinion. To a reader who wishes for general information and amusement, such a production will be a most agreeable companion; since all that is interesting with respect to the places described seems to be here introduced, and related in a neat and perspicuous manner.

The seventh volume contains accounts of Hertfordshire, Huntingdonshire, and part of Kent. In the report of Hertfordshire, the author took the histories of Chauncy and Salmon for his basis: by which means, together with corrections and additions from other sources, he has been enabled to give a very pleasing and satisfactory description of the district. With regard to the county of Huntingdon, we regret that we cannot speak quite so favourably; several places not being sufficiently described, and the account of Oliver Cromwell, although interesting in itself, being too much extended for such a work. The author, however, apologizes by saying that illness and other

other circumstances prevented him from re-traversing the county, according to his original intention.

Volume VIII. is occupied with a description of the county of Kent; which, together with what is contained in the following volume, forms an unusual share of the work for a single province. The reason, however, for devoting so much to this district is sufficiently founded in its being one of the most interesting counties in England; and had the descriptions been more concise, many important particulars must have been omitted, and the reader must have been deprived of a very desirable account of this part of the kingdom.

The ninth volume contains details of Lancashire, Leicestershire, and Lincolnshire. The description of the former county, though no regular history has been published, is full and interesting. The populous towns of Manchester and Liverpool are described in as circumstantial a manner as the plan would admit; and every thing that is worthy of notice in other parts of Lancashire seems to have due attention paid to it. With respect to the county of Leicester, as its topography and antiquities have been fully and minutely narrated by Mr. Nichols, a careful abridgment of and selection from his copious and elaborate volumes was found to be nearly sufficient for this district. A general reader, who may not have an opportunity or may feel no inclination to peruse the larger history will be much gratified with the account here given. In consequence of a long series of illness, the author was obliged to call in the aid of a literary friend to prepare the greater part of the description of the county of Lincoln for the press. This gentleman, the Rev. J. Evans, (author of two tours in North and South Wales,) has done justice both to the undertaking and the public, in the part which he has executed: but we were somewhat disappointed in not having a fuller account of Stamford, because scarcely a town in England, as the writer acknowledges, has been more illustrated by local historians.

In adverting to some inconveniences under which the authors labour, and which belong to the nature of the work, we must mention, as a very material circumstance, that it is published periodically; and that in consequence any information which does not reach them in time must often be omitted altogether. Another particular, which diminishes the value of the undertaking, is the occasional accommodation of the descriptions to the size of the volume; and this seems to be the reason for the very short account of the town of Stamford mentioned above.

It is proper to observe, also, that the first six volumes were the joint production of Mr. Brayley and Mr. Britton. The greater portion of the literary composition was derived from

the pen of the former gentleman ; while the principal share of travelling, correspondence, labour of accumulating books and documents, direction of draughtsmen and engravers, and some other necessary vocations, devolved on Mr. Britton. At the close of the sixth volume, however, it was deemed expedient that each of the before mentioned gentlemen should write and conduct a distinct volume. Whether this arrangement will be beneficial, time will shew : but it may possibly have this tendency, by creating emulation between the writers. In the volume compiled by Mr. Britton, we observe that the composition is somewhat more elaborate than it was in the former ; and his arrangement of the descriptions of the counties, according to their several hundreds, we deem an improvement.

The plates in the VIIth volume are 39, in the VIIIth 27, and in the IXth 31, and are in the same style as those which are contained in the former volumes. The subjects are well selected, and the engravings are for the most part neatly executed : but some of them have not much excellence to boast. To this circumstance the Editor should particularly attend, since they ought to be uniformly good.

**ART. V.** *The Beauties of Scotland* ; containing a clear and full Account of the Agriculture, Commerce, Mines, and Manufactures ; of the Population, Cities, Towns, Villages, &c. of each County. Embellished with Engravings. 5 Vols. 8vo. 3l. 15s. Boards. Printed at Edinburgh, and sold in London by Vennor and Co.

**T**HE title of this book, or at least the first and most conspicuous part of it, is strangely at variance with the body of the work. By the *beauties* of a country, most readers understand the objects which interest the taste, such as picturesque scenery and ornamental improvement. On this occasion, however, a much greater latitude is given to the epithet ; and a latitude against which we deem it incumbent on us to enter our protest. Mines and manufactures, valuable as they are, we cannot in justice class among the *beauties* of a country. The same remark applies to the essential topics of trade, farming, and population ; in all of which, we conceive, the reader will find his intellect and memory more powerfully engaged than his imagination. Although it is embellished with engravings, the publication is neither more nor less than “ a geographical and statistical Account of Scotland, arranged by counties ; ” and any deviation from this title must lead to a misapprehension.

The distribution is as follows.—Vol. I. contains Mid Lothian, East Lothian, and Berwickshire. Vol. II. Roxburgh, Selkirk,

Selkirk, Peebles, Dumfries, Kircudbright, Wigton, and Ayr. Vol. III. Renfrew, Lanark, Dunbarton, Stirling, Linlithgow, and Clackmannan. Vol. IV. Kinross, Fife, Perth, Forfar, Kincardine, Aberdeen, Banff, Elgin, Nairn, Cromarty, and Caithness. Vol. V. Orkney, Shetland, Sutherland, Ross, Inverness, Argyle, Bute, and Arran. Of the first volume, a considerable proportion is allotted to Edinburgh; Glasgow is described at similar length in the third; and the arrangement is such that all the Highland counties are comprehended in the fifth. We have not fewer than five separate dedications, each volume being addressed by Mr. Forsyth, the editor, to a person of eminence in the quarter described in that volume. Thus Vol. I. is inscribed to the Duke of Buccleugh; Vol. II. to Lord Haddington; Vol. III. to the Marquis of Douglas; Vol. IV. to Mr. Monk of Panmure; and Vol. V. to Sir John Sinclair.

Each province is separately described. The principal topics are its boundaries, rivers, soil, climate, aspect of the country, minerals and other objects of natural history, mode of husbandry, antiquities, dialect, trade, towns, villages, public buildings, family seats, local history, and biographical notices of eminent individuals born in the district under view.

In a country in which information is so generally diffused as in Scotland, and where, particularly of late years, so much pains have been taken to collect statistical reports, the materials for a publication like this are ample; and if a work on this subject were badly executed, it would merit severe animadversion. It is gratifying, therefore, to find that this book does not suffer by a reference to the sources from which it has been derived, and still less by a comparison with the statistical accounts of other countries. The task of compilation has been performed with care and industry; the style is perspicuous; and the general reasoning, which is occasionally interspersed with the local descriptions, discovers no inconsiderable compass of information. The plates are in most instances creditably executed, but not of the highest order of merit.

Among the various subjects which will interest an attentive reader, we may notice the observations (Vol. IV. p. 34,) on repairing roads by statute-labour; the reflections (Vol. III. p. 316,) on the effects of manufactures on morals; and (Vol. II. p. 47,) an exposition of the mistaken principles of our country-gentlemen, in respect to that most important subject, the corn-laws. In regard to the first of these points, it is stated that the scheme of repairing roads by statute-work, or the joint assistance of the people chiefly concerned in the preservation of roads, was advisable at an early period when husbandry

was rudely conducted, because considerable intervals of suspension from agricultural labour then arose : but, since farming has become a complicated occupation, requiring the unremitting vigilance of the master and constant exertion on the part of his servants, statute-labour has been commuted for pecuniary payment. Concerning the effect of manufactures on morals, after having mentioned that children are employed by hundreds in spinning mills in the West of Scotland, and that many of the proprietors of these mills were so humane as to provide teachers to instruct the children in their hours of intermission from labour, the Editor adds :

‘ There is much reason to apprehend, that these establishments have not proved favourable to the morals or character of the people. To rear or train up a human being to the possession of a valuable character, it is not enough that he have bread to eat, or even that a teacher shall instruct him to read his own language or to repeat a catechism. It is necessary, that during his earliest years his affections should be cultivated by parental kindness, and that the patriotic and other sentiments which prevail in society should be instilled into his mind. It is likewise of importance to both sexes, that they set before them an example of frugality, and of proper domestic management, that they may themselves be enabled at a future period to become useful members of families. But by the establishments now alluded to, no opportunity of this sort could be afforded. Before the parental and filial affections had fully operated, they were dissolved by the removal of the parties from each other. The children knew no other relation in life than that of master and servant ; that attachment to their kindred or their country, which is productive of a love of character and of so many virtues, could never arise in their minds ; their only society consisted of infants, like themselves, equally ignorant, and equally insulated, and cast out from the world ; having their bread provided without any care, either exerted by themselves, or seen to be exerted in their society, they could acquire no foresight ; and that mode of life necessarily prevented their obtaining an acquaintance with any kind of domestic management : hence they became totally unfit to manage families of their own. Children thus reared have also been found, for the same reason, more unfit than any others to hold the station of domestic servants, by which a part of the defects of their early education might have been remedied.’

On the subject of the corn-laws, we find these remarks :

‘ The British country-gentlemen are continually soliciting the legislature to impose restrictions upon the importation of grain, and to offer bounties for its exportation, with a view to encourage agriculture, and, by increasing the profits attending upon it, to increase the rental of their own estates. But by reflecting somewhat more attentively upon the subject, they would perceive that this policy is extremely short-sighted, and pernicious to their own interests. By  
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raising the price of grain in any country, the progress of its population and manufactures is necessarily retarded ; towns and villages are prevented from growing up, and arts and riches increased. But towns and villages, filled with a crowded population, form the only markets for the products of agriculture ; and by increasing the demand for these products, they form the only sure means of augmenting the value of land. Grain is the food of the common people ; and where it is not found cheap, they cannot exist or labour in the service of enterprising manufacturers at a cheap rate.'

To these extracts we might add, if our limits permitted, a variety of others equally indicative of judicious observation. In Vol. IV. page 62, a striking picture is drawn of the beneficial effects of agricultural improvement on the domestic comfort of the farmer and cottager ; and examples are given (page 71) which shew how unnecessary it is for landlords always to introduce, into their leases, clauses restrictive of the mode of cultivation. During the continuance of a lease, it is as much the tenant's as the proprietor's interest that good care should be taken of the land ; and towards the close of a lease, Mr. F. observes, the ground that is fitted to bear flax, or whatever else is supposed to exhaust the soil, cannot be considered as left in an impoverished state. To those who are aware that much higher rents are now paid by the Scotch than by the English farmer, it will appear a remarkable fact that, half a century ago, the southern part of our island was farther advanced in the science of cultivation than the northern. The superior rapidity, with which improvements have since been disseminated among our fellow-subjects beyond the Tweed, is very properly ascribed in the work under review to the advantages of education. Wherever knowledge is diffused, there will be found a belief that much yet remains to be done in the career of amelioration ; and this belief operates powerfully against those prejudices in favour of antient practices, which tend to keep the majority of mankind in hereditary ignorance, and to clog the progress of useful discovery. In a well informed district, likewise, notice of the success of every improvement is rapidly circulated ; and a delay in its adoption is injurious not only to the interest but to the respectability of an individual. Such are the primary causes of inequality in the comparative progress of agriculture in the two divisions of the kingdom. Their effects have also been greatly accelerated by difference in the term of leases. In the North, the mode of election to Parliament is such as to render the land-holder indifferent to the suffrages of the tenantry ; and accordingly no objection is made, on the ground of influence, to grant a lease of such length as will give the tenant the full benefit of his improvements. In the South, on the contrary, the land-holders have in general deemed it necessary, for the  
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maintenance of their influence, to let land on very short leases, or even from year to year ; a mode of tenure that is calculated to prevent all improvements of which the benefits are remote.

In treating of the mineralogy of Lanarkshire, (Vol. III. p. 92.) the Editor presents us with a disquisition on the manufacture of iron, and a history of its progress. This manufacture has been extended of late years, both in England and in Scotland, to a degree of which the public at large is probably not aware ; and from our abounding in coal and in iron ore, it bids fair to receive a progressive augmentation, until it occupies one of the foremost stations among the objects of general industry.—The tract of territory in Scotland, within which coal is found, possesses great advantages over the rest of the country, and has made the most rapid advances in population and wealth. In other quarters, large towns have been established in those situations only in which a communication with the coal-country could take place by water. The coal-region in Scotland extends across the island from Ayrshire to Fife in a north-east direction : the breadth of this tract being between thirty and forty miles, and its length about twice as much. The coal-country in the North of England, extending from Whitehaven to Newcastle, seems to run across the island in a similar direction, and to occupy a similar extent of surface. Less progress appears to have been made in ascertaining the continuity of the great beds of coal in Wales, and the adjoining counties of England.

Among the causes of the rapid improvement of Scotland, the smallness of the poor's rate holds a conspicuous place. The wants of the poor are generally supplied by charitable collections distributed by the Kirk-sessions ; institutions of the simplest kind, but so happily adapted to their functions, that no complaint of embezzlement was ever made against them. The unexceptionable manner, in which these duties have been performed, prevented the extension of the poor's rate to Scotland at the time even when the impolicy of this tax had not been discovered.—It is a remarkable circumstance in history that, at the Reformation, the property of the Catholic clergy fell in England into the hands of the Crown, while in Scotland it passed chiefly into those of individuals. In the one country, government was strong ; in the other, it was weak. England was ruled by Henry VIII. ; Scotland was superintended, rather than controuled, by a regency ; and the nobles and gentry were accordingly permitted to seclude to their families the church-lands in their neighbourhood. Many of the popish churchmen were the near kindred of noblemen, and conveyed their lands to their relations ; and it may be remarked,



remarked, in general terms, that the Catholic clergy were themselves the instruments of the extinction of church-property, by giving it to the powerful for protection, or bartering it to the rich for small sums of money, to be applied to their own subsistence during the remainder of their lives.

One of the principal differences between the agriculture of the North and that of the South consists in the application of horses to the purposes of draught. In England, it is still common, notwithstanding the admonitions of Mr. Arthur Young, to see five horses attached lengthwise to a plough or a cart; while in Scotland, two-horse ploughs and one-horse carts are generally introduced, on the plain principle that the power of the horse is greater in proportion as he is nearer the draught. In the North, the plough also is made with a sharper point and edge, which enables it more easily to penetrate the soil. The common load for a one-horse cart (Vol. III. p. 70,) is between a ton and twenty-five hundred weight, exclusive of the cart itself; a draught considerably beyond the power of a single horse when yoked with four or five others. In regard to ploughs, it is remarkable that, at the established competitions in Scotland, it is open to the ploughmen to use as many horses as they please; and that a general concurrence (Vol. IV. page 6) is now prevalent in favour of those ploughs which are drawn by two horses. It appears, therefore, that these are not only the cheapest but the best.

East Lothian, which is generally accounted the pride of Scotland as a corn-country, has been more favoured by nature in climate than in soil. In the latter a clay-bottom predominates: but the hills which intervene between this county and the Atlantic protect it from those deluges of rain which are common in the Western part of the island; while the vicinity of Edinburgh has likewise been conducive to the rapidity of its improvement. The opposite coast of Fife has, during the last half-century, advanced with a correspondent progress; and it has now recovered all that it had previously lost by the Union: the effects of which were at first so injurious to this quarter, that the shipping of Kirkcaldy, which in the middle of the 17th century had amounted to a hundred sail, was reduced, by the middle of the 18th, to two ferry-boats and a coaster of fifty tons.

In describing Lanarkshire, (Vol. III. page 107,) the lead-miners, residing in the southern part of that country, are represented as forming a striking exception to the general character of miners. Their work occupies them only six hours out of the twenty-four; they have therefore considerable leisure; and they employ a portion of it in reading. They have collected

collected a library, and have established a good school for their children. This taste for literature has been followed by its ordinary concomitants, decency, industry, and sobriety;—a most effectual reform of their previous character, which was in no respect superior to that of ordinary colliers.

The history of Berwickshire (Vol. II. p. 38,) suggests a comparison between the effects of feudal turbulence and those of modern luxury; one of the most remarkable circumstances in which is that the dangers of war were less pernicious to the higher orders in society, than the effeminacy attendant on the possession of fortune in an age of tranquillity. The average of life is longer in the former case than in the latter; and fewer great families have become extinct in the North of England, amid an endless succession of hostile operations, than in the South, which has been so long the scene of internal peace and prosperity.

Among the descriptions of picturesque scenery, the most interesting are those of the view from Ben Lomond, Vol. III. page 384, and of Loch Catherine, Vol. IV. page 193. The former has been often delineated: but the latter is in a great measure new, the access to it being through so wild a region that its celebrity has commenced only in late years. Loch Catherine is situated in the south-west of Perthshire, and, along with two other lakes, gives rise to the river Teith, which flows eastward into the Forth. A traveller, going by the south side of the mountain of Ben Ledi, has these lakes sometimes concealed from his view, and at other times bursting on him in all their extent: one while, his road is formed on a bulwark, raised like the quay of a harbour, on the very borders of the deep; and at another time, he travels through woods whose solemn gloom is scarcely penetrated by a ray of the sun. If he casts his eyes upwards, he sees the wild goats climbing where they seem to have scarcely room even for their feet, and the wild fowl perched on trees, or on the pinnacle of a rock, looking down with composed defiance at man. In sailing round, he discovers many arms of the lake; here, a bold head-land, where black-rocks dip into unfathomable water; there, the white-sand in the bottom of a bay, bleached for ages by the waves. In a word, he encounters so many heights and hollows, so many glens and capes and bays, that he cannot advance twenty yards without having the prospect changed by the continual appearance of new objects.

We have now adverted to several of the more interesting parts of this work, and must proceed to the less grateful task of commenting on its faults. The descriptions in many cases appear to be too minute, and sufficient distinction is not made  
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between those objects which merit and those which do not deserve a full illustration. We have also remarked several instances in which the information given is more applicable to the former than to the present state of Scotland; an error which probably arises from copying old reports without attending to the rapidity of recent changes. In Vol. I. (page 508) the yearly wages of women servants, in East Lothian, are reckoned at between 3*l.* and 3*l.* 10*s.* with two pairs of shoes, and the sowing of half a peck of linseed. In Vol. III. (page 234) the students at Glasgow University are stated to be somewhat above 600. In both cases, we believe, a full third may be safely added to these calculations.—The total want of maps, also, is a great defect in a work in which the geographical descriptions are so minute as to become unintelligible without reference to those aids. The same remark applies to the accounts of the streets and suburbs of Edinburgh and Glasgow, which either should have been given more cursorily, or, if detailed at length, should have been accompanied by a plan of these cities.—The style of the writer is in general clear and unaffected, but we have met with several instances of inaccurate and quaint expressions. In one part (Vol. III. p. 79,) we find *again revive*; in another, (Vol. IV. 394,) *great magnitude*; in a third place, (Vol. III. p. 203,) a pavement is said to consist of free stones *accurately joined together*; and in Vol. II. p. 428, we are told of the boundaries of a country being *articulately stated*. In Vol. IV. page 75, the following sentence occurs: ‘These young plantations consist of various kinds, such as oak, Scots fir, larix, beech, birch, ash, &c.; the kind always bearing the largest proportion that is judged most congenial to the soil.’ The meaning of the latter part of the sentence is somewhat obscure from the inaccurate position of the words, which ought to run thus: “the kind which is judged most congenial to the soil always bearing the largest proportion.” In the same volume, (page 565,) we observe a remarkable error in regard to the engravings. A view of Brechin church is called a view of Brechin Castle; and in the next plate, when the Castle itself is exhibited, it is called by the odd name of Breaching Castle.

With these drawbacks, the book is still valuable as a store-house of local information; and it would afford us great satisfaction to see the other parts of the empire described with equal accuracy. The size of this publication, however, is such as may discourage from the perusal of it those who are not particularly interested in Scotland. For general readers, by whom we mean persons residing out of that portion of the kingdom, and desiring to obtain a general idea of the face of the country,

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of the education and manners of the inhabitants, and of the history of their improvements in art and science, a work on a different plan would be requisite; such as, without attempting to describe the locality of each district, should exhibit a selection of the most striking objects of nature and art. In discussing the principal remarkable circumstances which distinguish Scotland from other countries, the effects on morals and industry of its form of church-government, of its parish schools, and of its universities, would engage a great share of attention; and, if delineated by a superior hand, they might lead to conclusions favourable to the diffusion of knowledge throughout the Empire, and productive of those consequences which always follow in the train of improvement, — increase of individual comfort as well as of national power.

ART. VI. *A Series of Letters between Mrs. Elizabeth Carter, and Miss Catherine Talbot, from the Year 1741 to 1770. To which are added Letters from Mrs. Elizabeth Carter to Mrs. Vesey, between the Years 1763 and 1787; published from the original Manuscripts in the Possession of the Rev. Montagu Pennington, M.A., Vicar of Northbourn in Kent, her Nephew and Executor.* 4to. 2 Vols. 3l. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1808.

IT may be in the recollection of our readers, that about two years ago we offered our opinion on the merits of a very solid quarto, which was occupied with a biographical memoir of Mrs. Carter by her nephew, Mr. Pennington; and that, in our text, we paid a compliment to his discreet intention of suppressing a large collection of letters, according to the presumed wishes of his aunt, which we were suddenly and reluctantly compelled to retract in a note, on discovering that those very letters were actually in the press. They soon afterward made their appearance, and have since occupied a considerable portion of our time in the perusal of them. They fill above a thousand closely-printed quarto pages; and the publication of them does not, in our opinion, by any means confirm the common observation that "second thoughts are best."

We learn, however, that Mr. Pennington discovered divers reasons for doubting his own assertion of Mrs. Carter's unwillingness to have her epistolary secrets betrayed to the public, shortly after that assertion was made. In the first place, though she constantly expressed indignation against those who unnecessarily violate the confidential secrecy of letters, he endeavours to infer from various circumstances an implicit consent to his giving a posthumous notoriety to her own corre-

pondence :

pondence : but, lest the evidence should be deemed unsatisfactory, he dwells on many arguments of a general nature, the weight of which might perhaps be deemed sufficient to overbalance even a positive prohibition. 'To give the world (he says) an innocent and engaging amusement could not be *wrong*;—to use every (all) means of counteracting the general thoughtlessness and lukewarmness of the age with regard to religion, was not only *right*, but a *positive duty*;—and he was repeatedly asked not only by the grave, but *also by the gay*, how he could *answer it to his conscience* to withhold from the world so delightful a means of improvement.' In truth, we half suspect that there was more pleasantry than sincerity in this remonstrance.

Other temptations suggested themselves.—The correspondence was likely to promote the cause of religion, by shewing that some of Mrs. Carter's most conscientious followers possessed a remarkable gaiety and cheerfulness of temper. It is no great compliment to the cause of religion, to suppose any necessity for such a fact to be proved : but it very unfortunately happens that a large proportion of these letters manifests a completely different temper in the writers, and abounds with mutual complaints and consolations on the subject of a miserable depression of spirits resulting from no assignable cause. To this worst of human afflictions, Mrs. Carter and Miss Talbot appear to have been lamentably subject ; and the former often has recourse to the convenient theory of *nerves*, in order to explain the unhappy feelings under which both laboured, and to excuse their giving way to them.

Finally, Mr. Pennington humbly and repeatedly insists that, if this publication 'does no good, at least *it can do no harm*.' In his own sense, we perfectly adopt his opinion, since we never saw stronger evidence than all the letters contain, of being produced by innocent, virtuous, and religious minds ; though it is impossible, without an absolute sacrifice of the truth of criticism, to applaud the judgment which has given them so voluminous a form, at the present price of paper and books.

We have no right, however, to complain of disappointment, since we have not received less amusement than we expected. The familiar correspondence of sensible and unaffected women, writing, from their own fire-side, without any view to a public display, on such topics as were only designed to interest each other,—occupying no elevated station in society,—describing only the even tenor of domestic life,—and, we must add, possessing neither first-rate powers of mind nor very attractive talents,—must necessarily abound with incidents in which

which posterity can take no concern. Accounts of balls and assemblies, critiques on caps and gowns, little circumstances relating to kindred and friends, handsome compliments profusely paid, but certainly not without the expectation of a return, or self-accusations advanced with the evident purpose of being refuted ;—all the small-talk, in short, of a morning visit, intermingled with incorrect French and shreds of ill-written Italian, (for the last fault, however, the editor and the printer must come in for their share of blame ;)—all these are perfectly excusable, and between female friends perhaps extremely pleasing : but how is the public to be the better for them ? A few remarks are occasionally made on the books which happen to be the subject of perusal : but they bear a small proportion to the other contents of the volume ; and the greater part of them is devoted to Sir Charles Grandison and Miss Byron, Lady L. and Lady G.,—characters which have now, perhaps, undergone in print a more complete and elaborate investigation than even those which are denominated *public* at the present inquisitive era.

In one point, Mr. Pennington has no mercy. He deluges the reader with allusions, though the matter in question is unknown, and never withholds the answer, though the inquiry is no where to be found.—His veneration for the ladies who composed the *blue stocking club* is unbounded ; and he takes infinite pains to convince mankind that ‘ the celibacy of Miss Talbot was not occasioned by any defect of personal accomplishments ’ which weighty point he establishes by reprinting some very dull complimentary verses, addressed to that lady in her youth.

Of the epistolary intercourse between Mrs. Carter and Miss Talbot, we shall say no more : that which took place between the former and Mrs. Vesey appears to have been generally conducted with considerable earnestness and solemnity, and is interspersed with frequent arguments in favour of God’s moral government of the world ; which were probably required by the observations of a lady who entertained, it seems, in a considerable degree, sceptical opinions, from which we have no conclusive proof of her having at any time receded. These arguments, however, are for the most part pointless, because they are unaccompanied by the particular doubts and objections which they were intended to remove : but, even if they were calculated to do all the good which the sanguine hopes of the editor are willing to ascribe to them, this could only have been effected by a very careful selection, instead of which they are lost in a cloud of temporary minutiz. Mrs. Carter’s occasional gaiety, though perfectly good humoured, is not peculiarly graceful ;

graceful ; and her gravity is perhaps too grave for a letter. We present the reader with a specimen of her style of moral reasoning :

‘ The next year, I hope, will bring me the happiness of meeting my scattered friends again in town, and make the number quite complete by your arrival in Bolton-row. Yet when the heart is indulged in every wish which it forms below the stars, how short must be its enjoyment ! I scarcely recollect any passage in antiquity so melancholy as the speech of a celebrated orator, who being asked how he did, answered, “ As well as any one can do who is turned of fourscore, and who considers death as the greatest of all evils.” Poor Isocrates ! Some of the ancients, I think, have censured the reply for the want of philosophical fortitude ; but surely it implies rather the want of philosophical pride and unfeelingness ; for I cannot help thinking that death, when considered without any regard to futurity, must have appeared the most dreadful to the best and most amiable characters. Such brutes as Diogenes and Crates, indeed, might treat the idea of death very cavalierly ; might throw themselves on the first dunghill and die without regret. For what motive had they to wish to live ? They cared for nobody ; and the world, which in this instance is always perfectly just and well-bred, returned the compliment in its full force, and nobody cared for them.

‘ It is not at all wonderful that such philosophers as these should preach and practise the utmost degree of fortitude with regard to an event in which they were so little concerned. But a mind adorned by elegant talents, and a heart attached by gentle affections, had too much to lose with indifference. The thought of a final separation from every exercise of understanding, and from every object of love, must have been sufficiently painful to justify the most pathetic lamentations. It would, I believe, have been impossible for Socrates, with all his social dispositions, to have parted from his friends, and walked out of life, with as much composure as if he only quitted them to take a turn in the groves of Academus, if he had not fortified his mind by hopes full of immortality.’

From the letters published in the memoirs of Mrs. Carter, we extracted her character of Lord Bath, which she wrote on hearing of his death ; and we shall here add her observations on those of two other very distinguished noblemen, at the time of their decease. The first is Lord Lyttleton, with whom she was intimately acquainted ; and the letter, dated from Deal, Sept. 2, 1773, is addressed to Mrs. Vesey :

‘ It is impossible for me, my dear Mrs. Vesey, to begin my letter with any other subject than that which I am sure must at present be so near your heart as the loss of our excellent and dear Lord Lyttleton. To his friends alone this is a melancholy event, to himself I trust it proves most joyful. From a world which so little deserved his virtues he is removed to the applauding society of saints and angels, and to the righteous Judge, who will reward them. Except the testimony of a good conscience, a long series of disappointments in

every human pursuit left him a very small portion of happiness below. His great integrity, his amiable simplicity, and the gentle temper of his mind, rendered him unfit for the advancements of life, which in this bad world are procured and supported by arts to which his soul was an utter stranger; and the affections of his heart were disappointed in every scheme of that domestic comfort which he was so peculiarly qualified to impart and to enjoy. He was a noble and edifying example of the power of Christian principles in many instances, and very particularly in that absolute resignation to the divine will, which calmed his mind amidst all the storms which with almost unremitting violence beat upon him. In all the conversations upon his misfortunes to which I have been witness, I do not recollect ever to have heard him utter a single murmur or complaint. It pleased God to try him in the "furnace of affliction," and like gold he came out with the greater purity and the brighter lustre.—The concluding scene of his life was conformable to all the past. The account is very affecting, but very delightful. His sun set in calm splendour without a cloud, his mind was supported by Christian faith, and his hopes were full of immortality.—Mr. Pepys was with him at Hagley to the last; and as Mrs. Montagu will have very particular accounts from him, she will probably, when her mind is sufficiently composed, transmit them to you. I had a letter from her last night: I thank God her health has not suffered from this stroke. She appears as deeply affected by it as one would naturally suppose her to be, and expresses herself with as much piety as sensibility on her melancholy loss of such a friend.

The other character is shorter, somewhat original, and perhaps not less just:

'You have I am persuaded felt a variety of emotions on hearing of the death of Lord Chatham, and the honours decreed to his memory, both by those who did, and by those who did not wish for his taking the helm. Much might be said on the subject of this extraordinary phenomenon in the moral and political world. His worst enemies must, I think, allow that there were some particulars in his conduct of public affairs, which unhappily for this nation, do not exist in every minister. He was superior to all the dirty corruption of election jobbing: he attended with unremitting diligence to the business of his post; and he took care that those whom he employed should attend to their's likewise.—But I am by no means equal to the task of drawing a character, in some instances so uncommonly great, and in others so vulgarly little.'

We can scarcely forbear stopping to contrast this 'extraordinary phenomenon' with his son, who avoided both these dangerous extremes, if there be any truth in the energetic portrait so concisely drawn of him by Mr. Burke,—"the sublimity of mediocrity."

Mrs. Carter's good sense, as applied to political affairs, is very conspicuous in the following remarks, dated 23d March, 1778:



‘ It is not possible for me to send you any political intelligence, for what is affirmed at one hour is contradicted the next. At the delivery of the French declaration of the American treaty every body looked in as great consternation as if no body had had any reason to know it for some weeks before. The alarm at present seems much quieted, and we seem to be pretty much in the same state as a French officer described his countrymen in the last war—“ Nous sommes écrasés, nous sommes abimés, et nous allons à l’opéra.”—A great outcry against the ministers, but they preserve their majority in the house and stick fast to their places.—The loss of the colonies will probably occasion great distress and convulsions for the present. In the next age perhaps the nation may be the happier for being rid of them. They may be useful and comfortable allies, though they are got to a maturity that would prevent their ever being again tractable subjects. There may be in states as well as in regard to individuals a proper season for emancipation; and perhaps all parent-countries would act with the wisest policy, whenever that period arrives, to submit to it with a good grace, and to secure the affection and friendship of those whom they can no longer controul.’

This is much better than the reproaches of rebellion, ingratitude, parricide, &c., which persons who were outrageously loyal and religious considered it as their duty to hurl against the separating colonies, and shews a liberality that is not always found in *côteries* of old ladies. Plain, unvarnished, practical good sense is indeed the distinguishing feature of Mrs. Carter’s mind; though, by a common mistake, she persuades herself into the notion, which her poems effectually confute, of being gifted with a vivid and playful imagination. Her qualities were more solid, useful, and respectable; and the excellence of her character is no small justification even of the ill-judging partiality which has given birth to the crowded quartos before us.

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ART. VII. *A New System of Chemical Philosophy. Part I.* By John Dalton. 8vo. pp. 220. and 4 Plates. 7s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1808.

**M**r. Dalton’s work has been in our hands for some time, and our sense of its value and importance would have made us desirous of communicating a speedy account of it to our readers: but, as he had published only a part of a more extended system, which was in its present form so evidently imperfect, we were induced to defer our examination, in the hope of being enabled to take a more general view of the whole range of the author’s new doctrines, in all their various ramifications. A considerable period, however, having now elapsed, and no immediate prospect of the publication of the second part being

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apparent,

apparent, we have determined to postpone no longer our review of this first volume; and we shall accordingly proceed to point out some of the most novel and important facts which it contains, and endeavour to give a general idea of the leading hypotheses.

It is divided into three chapters; on heat or caloric, on the constitution of bodies, and on chemical synthesis. The author begins by stating his general ideas respecting the nature of caloric, which he regards as 'an elastic fluid of great subtilty, the particles of which repel one another, but are attracted by all other bodies.' As the absolute quantity of heat differs in bodies while they indicate the same temperature, it seems to follow that each kind of matter has its peculiar affinity for heat: but we find that this affinity is increased or diminished when a body experiences any remarkable change in its form. Though the author professes to 'settle what is intended to be meant by the word temperature,' we do not think that he has very clearly defined it; and he appears to us, from some of his expressions, not to have drawn that accurate distinction between the temperature of a body and its absolute quantity of heat, which we should have expected from a person of his acuteness. Temperature, in its primary acceptation, was applied solely to the sensible effects produced by heat on the animal body: but it was afterward extended to the power which caloric possesses of expanding certain substances, which, being supposed to be a much more accurate measure of the increase or diminution of heat than the sensations, is the standard to which we now always refer. It becomes, therefore, an interesting question to determine whether the temperature of bodies, *i. e.* the degree of their expansion, follows the same ratio with the increase of their absolute heat. All our instruments for measuring temperature proceed on this supposition; and yet, we think, Mr. Dalton clearly proves, that the idea is incorrect. Many circumstances seem to indicate, as a general law, that, whenever the bulk of a body is augmented, its capacity for combining with heat likewise increases; and therefore that a quantity of caloric will be consumed in producing the next equal degree of expansion. This variation of capacity, and the consequent variation which must be produced by the addition of equal quantities of caloric to the body when possessed of a different capacity, is supposed to be considerable: but it is acknowledged that we are not at present provided with any data for ascertaining its amount. Mr. Dalton observes that the common mercurial scale is an incorrect method of estimating temperature,—he should have said, of estimating the addition of caloric.

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• The proofs of his opinion which Mr. D. adduces are, first, if we mix together two portions of water at different temperatures; the mixture will also be found below the mean as indicated on our thermometers; and, 2dly, that mercury, like water, and perhaps all other fluids, seems to expand more the more its heat is increased. We believe that he is warranted in both these positions, and in that case his conclusions must be admitted: but we may remark that the increasing ratio of the expansion of mercury, by the addition of equal quantities of caloric, must serve in some degree as a contradicting circumstance to the augmentation of capacity which mercury receives by expansion. With respect to the ratio of the increasing expansion of mercury, Mr. D. apprehends it to be as the square of its temperature from the freezing point; a ratio which he also supposes to obtain with respect to water. It would appear that this ratio was adopted in the first instance as a probable conjecture: but several facts so remarkably coincide with it as to give it very considerable plausibility. If we assume the principle, and correct the mercurial scale accordingly, we shall find that it corresponds with the rate of the expansion of water, taken from its point of greatest density; and proceeding by the same scale of temperature, we shall also find that the force of steam from all pure liquids will constitute a geometrical progression, corresponding to an arithmetical progression of the increment of temperature. The same correspondence takes place with respect to the law of the expansion of permanently elastic fluids; and it is also observed that the rate, at which a hot body cools, will form a geometrical progression in equal portions of time. Calculating on the common division of the mercurial scale, all these processes present some anomalies, or irregularities, which on the present supposition do not exist.—The difference between the new and the old scale is thus stated:

‘ A mercurial thermometer graduated according to this principle will differ from the ordinary one with equidifferential scale, by having its lower degrees smaller and the upper ones larger; the mean between freezing and boiling water, or 122° on the new scale, will be found about 110° on the old one.’

The author then gives a table in which the new and old scales are compared together, and in which we have also the comparative ratio of the expansion of air, water, and the different kinds of vapours. In explaining this table, Mr. Dalton (we think) has fallen into an inaccuracy, from not having clearly defined what he means by the word *temperature*. He speaks of water as being ‘raised through equal increments of

temperature 'as measured by this (the new) scale : ' now the only definite measure of temperature is expansion ; yet the very principle of the new division is to prove an inequality in the expansion, and that it proceeds according to the square of the temperature, less in the lower degrees, and progressively increasing in the higher parts of the scale. One of the columns of this table consists of the mercurial scale, corrected according to the supposed effect which the expansion of the glass must produce on the mercury. It appears that this effect is by no means to be disregarded ; and that the glass, by expanding more in the higher temperatures, still farther tends to increase the inaccuracy of the present mode of measuring heat.

This subject is discussed more minutely in the next section, on expansion by heat. The author lays down four positions, as indicative of the effect which must be produced on all kinds of thermometers, in consequence of the difference in the expansion of mercury on the fluids employed, and the containing vessel. They may both expand at the same rate ; or the liquid more rapidly than the vessel, or more slowly ; or, lastly, the liquid may expand with a velocity continually accelerated, while the vessel expands uniformly. It appears that the last of these supposed conditions applies to the phenomena of the water-thermometer, and seems to reduce to a regular law the apparent anomaly which was always supposed to attend the expansion of this fluid. The general fact is well known, that the greatest density of water is at some degrees above its freezing point ; and Mr. Dalton instituted a set of experiments in order to discover where the exact point is to be fixed. His method was to inclose water in vessels of different materials ; and, inserting glass tubes into them, so as to convert them into a kind of thermometer, to observe to what height the water rose in each of these tubes. The difference in the elevation of the fluid was considerable, and must have been caused by a variation in the expansion of the vessels. The amount of this expansive power having been ascertained by other experiments, and the effect of the several substances being compared together, it was easy to calculate what part of the effect proceeded from the vessels, and what was due to the water itself. The general result is,

- ' That the greatest density of water is at or near the  $36^{\circ}$  of the old scale, and  $37^{\circ}$  or  $38^{\circ}$  of the new scale : and further, that the expansion of thin glass is nearly the same as that of iron, whilst that of stone ware is  $\frac{1}{3}$ , and brown earthen ware  $\frac{1}{3}$  of the same.'

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After some observations on the expansion of other fluids and of solids, we arrive at the third section, on the specific heat of bodies. The meaning of this phrase is well understood, and the proof of the facts on which it rests is decisive: but, though it be a probable opinion, we are scarcely warranted in assuming, as Mr. Dalton has done, that the different capacities which bodies possess for heat are to be referred absolutely to their different attractions for caloric, or that this is precisely analogous to a case of chemical affinity. Mr. D. gives an account of the several methods which have been adopted for ascertaining the specific heats of bodies; and a preference is assigned to that which depends on observing the rate of cooling, a method which was originally adopted by Meyer to discover the capacity of the various kinds of wood. Mr. Dalton also brings forwards a new 'theory of the specific heat of elastic bodies,' which proceeds on the principle, that 'the quantity of heat belonging to the ultimate particles of all elastic fluids must be the same under the same pressure and temperature.' The reasoning on which he endeavours to found this hypothesis does not appear to us to be conclusive. He asks, what change would take place in an elastic fluid, were its particles to have their affinity for heat suddenly increased; and he supposes that the only effects would be that the particles would condense their atmospheres of heat, that the whole volume of air would be diminished, and that no increase would ensue in the quantity of heat round each particle. When, however, the gas acquires an additional affinity for caloric, we should think that it would attract an additional quantity of this fluid from the surrounding bodies, and that consequently it would be expanded rather than contracted; because, as an increase of bulk seems to produce an increase of capacity, we may argue conversely that an increase of capacity will produce an increase of bulk. Proceeding on this assumed principle, the author deduces from it four corollaries, to one of which, at least, we cannot give our assent, viz: to that which states that those elastic fluids, which have their particles most condensed, have the strongest attraction for heat. Judging of the condensation of the particles of any gas by its specific gravity, hydrogen must possess them in a less condensed state than any body with which we are acquainted; yet its specific heat, which is considered by Mr. Dalton as an indication of its attraction for heat, is the greatest of any known substance.

In the 5th section, 'on the quantity of heat evolved by combustion,' we have some valuable remarks; and a set of experiments on the subject, which, though performed with a very simple apparatus, seem to be deserving of considerable

confidence, and even in some respects to be preferable to the more elaborate researches of Lavoisier and Crawford. The general results are as follow :

‘ Both Crawford and Lavoisier have been, in some degree, led away by the notion, that oxygenous gas was the sole or principal source of the light and heat produced by combustion. This is the more remarkable of the former, after he had proved that hydrogenous gas, one of the most frequent and abundant combustibles, possessed nearly five times as much heat as the same weight of oxygenous gas. Azote, another combustible, possesses as high and probably higher specific heat than oxygen. Oil, wax, tallow, alcohol, &c. would be far from being low in the table of specific heat, provided a table were formed comprehending bodies of every class. Charcoal and sulphur rank but low in the table. Upon the whole, then, we cannot adopt the language of Crawford, “ that inflammable bodies contain little absolute heat,” and “ that the heat which is produced by combustion is derived from the air, and not from the inflammable body.” This language may be nearly right, as applied to the ordinary combustion of charcoal and pitcoal ; but cannot be so when applied universally to combustible bodies.’

The sixth section treats on the natural zero of temperature ; an investigation which has frequently been attempted, but hitherto without success. Mr. Dalton is not discouraged by former failures : he thinks that we possess sufficient data to ascertain the point with, at least, a considerable approximation to accuracy ; and he is disposed to refer the great discordance, which prevails in the former calculations, to want of correctness in the fundamental experiments. The method which he pursues is not different from that which has been before adopted : it consists in first obtaining the specific heat of two bodies, and then observing what quantity of heat is evolved or absorbed during their combination. The substances on which he operated were mixtures of sulphuric acid and water, of lime and water, of nitric acid and lime, and the combustion of hydrogen, phosphorus, and charcoal.—Generally speaking, we think that more dependence may be placed on these experiments than on any which have been before performed with the same view. They agree better with each other ; the data are more fairly estimated ; and the conclusion, that the natural zero is ‘ about 6000° below the temperature of freezing water, according to the divisions of Fahrenheit’s scale,’ may be regarded as the least exceptionable solution of this curious question that has been offered.

We have next some remarks on the heat produced by friction ; in which the author observes, respecting Count Rumford’s famous experiment, that the heat was derived from the condensation of the whole metal of the cannon, by the pressure which

which it experienced in the operation of boring, and the consequent diminution of its capacity for heat.—In the section on motion and communication of heat, Mr. Dalton states his opinion that fluids are to a certain extent conductors, but that heat is principally conveyed along them by the motion of their particles. He takes due notice of Herschell's and Leslie's experiments on the radiation of heat; and from the latter he deduces the general fact that bodies, which are the best reflectors of heat, are the best disposed to absorb it, whereas bad reflectors absorb it and radiate it again. In general, Mr. D. admits the accuracy of Mr. Leslie's facts: but he dissents from his theory. He relates some experiments on the subject that was first noticed by Mr. Leslie, the effect of different elastic media on the cooling of heated surfaces; and some of that acute philosopher's most curious results are confirmed, especially the different effects of carbonic acid and hydrogen gas.

We pass over two sections, one on the temperature of the atmosphere, and the other on the congelation of water, in order to arrive at the second chapter, on the constitution of bodies. These are considered under the three grand divisions of elastic fluids, liquids, and solids; and the first class is again subdivided into pure elastic fluids, and mixed elastic fluids. In the second of these sections, Mr. D. introduces one of the most important and elaborate of his hypotheses, to which we have already had occasion to advert, in our account of the 5th volume of the Transactions of the Manchester Philosophical Society, where it was first published\*. The question which he proposes to resolve is, why do not the component parts of the atmosphere, which differ in their specific gravity, separate and arrange themselves accordingly; the oxygen occupying the lower, and the azote the higher regions? The fact is that, wherever they are examined, their mixture is always found to be uniform. Several circumstances seem to be inconsistent with the idea that the gases are kept together by the action of chemical affinity; and, in order to explain the fact, the author proposes the hypothesis 'that the particles of one gas are not elastic or repulsive in regard to the particles of another gas, but only to the particles of their own kind.' This hypothesis, which he improperly styles a theory, would remove the difficulty, but are there not facts which render it inadmissible? We think that this is the case, and that one fact is decisive against it; viz. that carbonic acid gas is occasionally found, forming a stratum near the surface of the earth, where nothing prevents

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\* See Rev. Vol. xlvii. N. S. p. 71. See also Vol. I. p. 357.

its diffusion through the superior air, except its greater specific gravity. Such circumstances as these are too common to require particularizing. We are disposed to explain the fact very much in the way that is adopted by M. Berthollet and Mr. Murray; who suppose the existence of a weak affinity, not sufficient to overcome the repulsion of the caloric which is united to the particles of the gas, so as to destroy their aeriform state, but enough to preserve them within a certain distance from each other. Mr. Dalton takes considerable pains to repel the various arguments of his opponents, and examines in succession the objections started against his hypothesis by M. Berthollet, Dr. Thomson, Mr. Murray, and Mr. Gough; and after having observed the zealous manner in which he defends his opinion, we were not a little surprized on reading a few pages farther to perceive that he, as it were, gives up the contest, by saying that 'the phenomena of mixed gases may still be accounted for by repulsion, without the postulatum that their particles are mutually inelastic.'

A principal object of the author's remarks on the constitution of liquids is to shew that the relation between gases and water is purely mechanical; an opinion which he derives chiefly from the fact, which was discovered by Dr. Henry, that exactly in proportion as the gas pressing on the surface of the fluid is condensed or rarified, so is the absorbed gas condensed or rarified. The circumstance is important, but we do not think that it establishes the principle; and Mr. Dalton himself admits that the acid and alkaline gases act chemically on water.

The third chapter, on chemical synthesis, consists of only a few pages, and is a mere exposition of some new doctrines which are to be hereafter more fully expanded. Mr. D. proposes, indeed, to search into some of the most hidden recesses of nature, to determine 'the relative weights of the ultimate particles, both of simple and compound bodies, the number of simple elementary particles which constitute one compound particle, and the number of less compound particles which enter into the formation of one more compound particle.' We shall only express our hope that Mr. Dalton may continue to prosecute his inquiries with as much success as he has experienced in commencing them.

We have perused this small volume with great interest. Where so much novelty occurs, in course a diversity of opinion will be excited, and to some of the new doctrines we cannot give our full assent: but we have seldom, if ever, seen a work in which we have met with so much that is new, and  
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at the same time so much that deserves commendation. Mr. Dalton possesses great acuteness and penetration; and from a few simple premises he deduces a number of most important consequences. In some instances, he oversteps the exact limit of philosophical caution, and may occasionally be said to adhere rather too pertinaciously to his own opinions: but we are unwilling to dwell on these points, when that which is excellent so far exceeds that which is defective or objectionable.

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ART. VIII. *A Treatise on the Anatomy, Pathology, and Surgical Treatment of Aneurism\**, with Engravings. By Antonio Scarpa, Professor of Anatomy and Practical Surgery in the University of Pavia, &c. &c. Translated from the Italian, with Notes. By J. H. Wishart, Fellow of the Royal College of Surgeons, Edinburgh, &c. 8vo. pp. 530. and two Plates. 15s. Boards. Murray, and Cradock and Joy.

WE were some time since apprized, by means of the periodical journals, of the existence of M. Scarpa's original treatise on Aneurysm; and we felt anxious that it should not only be presented to our countrymen in the English language, but also be printed in such a form as should render it accessible to the generality of medical readers. We are happy to state that our wishes have been accomplished on both these points in the present volume; which furnishes a complete, and, we believe, a faithful translation of Scarpa's treatise, and in the execution of which the translator has very properly preferred utility to splendor.—In the preface, the circumstance is stated which gave rise to this work. The Medical Society of Paris proposed in the year 1798, as the subject of a prize essay, a number of questions relating to aneurysm; M. Scarpa was accidentally prevented from becoming a competitor: but his mind was thus attracted to the investigation, and the result of his labours is the volume now before the public. The questions urged by the society are in themselves pertinent and comprehensive, and they are farther interesting as marking the state of our knowledge at the period of their being suggested:

\* In what cases is the assistance of the surgeon necessary, and in what circumstances are internal remedies, diet, and rest, sufficient to effect the cure of aneurism? When the assistance of the surgeon is

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\* This word should certainly be spelt Aneurysm. The *y* was generally adopted by the older writers; it was also employed by Sauvages, and more lately by the classical Heberden: but almost all the other moderns write it Aneurism.

necessary.

necessary, what are the cases in which compression may be employed with success as a method of cure, and when ought the ligature of the aneurismatic artery to be preferred to compression? Farther, when the ligature is indicated as the only method of cure, is it proper to make two ligatures; that is, one above and the other below the aneurism; or is the upper ligature sufficient? In the last place, in what cases is it proper to open the aneurismal sac, and cut it out? and in what cases is it better to leave it to the powers of nature?—In short; what are the advantages and disadvantages of the different methods hitherto known for operating on aneurism?

For a considerable period before he commenced the composition of this work, the author seems to have particularly directed his attention to this object, and to have adopted some new opinions concerning it; especially respecting the manner in which the disease is originally formed, and the consequent division of its species. He had likewise made many researches into the process by which the complaint has occasionally obtained a natural cure, and into the powers which the sanguiferous system possesses, of supplying the different parts of the body with the due proportion of blood, by means of the anastomosing vessels. These may be considered as the fundamental points of his treatise; and as those in which he has produced, or has attempted to produce, a real addition to our former stock of knowledge. The last of these points, *i. e.* the capacity which exists in the different parts of the body for receiving an adequate supply of arterial blood, by means of the communications between the larger vessels, forms the first subject of his examination.

Although, in a certain degree, the existence of anastomosing or communicating arteries was known to the earlier anatomists, they were ignorant of the extent of them; and, being guided by the knowledge which they actually possessed, they were alarmed, in performing any operation which rendered it necessary to tie up the large trunks, lest the remote parts should be deprived of their supply of blood. Such fears were rational, since, according to their ideas of the distribution of the vessels, it would have been the extreme of rashness to have attempted the operations which we now execute with perfect confidence. Different circumstances, many of them of an accidental nature, led us to adopt the opinions which we now entertain on the subject; and it may probably be asserted without presumption, that, on this point, our knowledge is complete: since we have learned that, wherever the structure of the body permits us to put a ligature on an artery, some channel exists by which the blood will find its way to the parts below the ligature. The artery both of the superior and the inferior extremities, and even the carotid, have been tied

tied as soon as they emerge from the trunk. On this point, therefore, the work of the Italian Professor does not contain any information which can be considered as new to the surgeons of this country; and, indeed, since the publication of his book, some operations have been actually performed which he only suggests as possible. We do not, however, on this account, consider the chapters with which the volume commences, and which give a minute description of the arteries of the extremities and all their anastomoses, as without value: on the contrary, we regard them as possessing merit of a superior kind, viz. the merit of containing a complete and well-digested detail of a series of facts, which are of the first importance to the science of surgery and to physiology. These chapters in the original are accompanied by a set of large and accurate engravings, which the translator has been induced by economical considerations to omit. So far as the book has thus been rendered more attainable by all ranks of the profession, we think that he has acted wisely; and it may perhaps be sufficient for all useful purposes, that a few copies of the original should be deposited in the principal public libraries, where they may be occasionally consulted: but it must be confessed that the omission renders the English edition much less complete; and we should be almost disposed to say that, if the plates must be withholden, it would have been proper to suppress also those chapters which are interesting only as connected with them. The description of the arteries is accompanied by a chapter intitled 'Corollaries,' in which, from the preceding details, the author deduces the actual route which the blood may take when the large trunks are obstructed or obliterated; and he endeavours to prove, what has been amply confirmed by experiment, that sufficient provision is made for the circulation through the extremities, without the assistance of any of the great trunks.

The next object of the Professor is to establish his doctrine respecting the nature and formation of aneurysm; and on this point he may be considered as having made an important addition to our previous knowledge. Aneurysms have been uniformly divided into what have been called *true* and *false*; the first consisting of a mere dilatation of a part of the artery, the second of a rupture of the vessel, and the consequent effusion of the blood into the adjoining cellular texture. M. Scarpa's opinion on this subject is, however, different from that which is most prevalent; he decidedly concludes that *true* aneurysm is a disease which never exists; and that in all cases this affection is produced 'by a corrosion and rupture of the proper coats of the artery, and consequently, by the effusion of blood under

under the cellular sheath, or any other membrane which covers externally the injured artery.' In endeavouring to establish this doctrine, he feels it incumbent on him to point out the causes which have led to so general a reception of the contrary opinion. In the first place, he does not hesitate to attribute this circumstance to the little pains which medical men have bestowed on the inspection of aneurysms; having contented themselves with viewing the disease as it first presents itself to the eye, without examining the relation between the aneurysmal sac and the proper coats of the artery. Another cause of error is that, often, even in the largest aneurysms, the tumor still continues to be circumscribed; and, lastly, the appearance of the sac, which, on a cursory inspection, seems to consist of a smooth membrane, continuous with the proper coats of the artery, and contained along with it in a common external covering. These sources of error, M. Scarpa confidentially affirms, may be detected by a more minute examination of the parts; if we carefully trace the sound portion of the vessel to the aneurysmal sac, we shall clearly perceive that this latter consists merely of condensed cellular membrane, and is not continuous with the proper coats of the artery. By a careful dissection, we may follow the different coats that belong to the vessel as far as the root of the tumor; there we shall find them terminating in an irregular manner, forming, as the author expresses it, a kind of broken fringe; and beyond this we shall observe the tumor itself commencing behind this fringe, and being evidently something extraneous.

The Professor alleges as an argument in favour of his opinion of aneurysm not being produced by the mere dilatation of the vessel, that the root of the aneurysm never includes the whole circumference of the arterial tube:

\* The root constantly occupies and involves only the one or the other side of the artery, from which side the aneurysmal sac rises and enlarges in the form of an appendix or tuberosity, more or less large and extended, according to the circumstances of the place, or of the period of the disease; while, on the contrary, the dilatation of the artery occurs constantly in the whole circumference of the tube, and therefore differs essentially from aneurism. The smallest arteries of the uterus, for example, assume, in pregnancy, a size three or four times greater than that which they had before impregnation. The arteries of a large incysted tumour, those of the obstructed spleen, and the lateral arteries of a large trunk, through which the course of the blood has been interrupted, dilate beyond what any one would imagine; but the enlargement of these arteries always takes place through the whole circumference of their tube; and a tuberosity is never observed to arise from any side of these dilated

dilated arteries, and a receptacle is never formed by their coats, similar to the sac of an aneurism.'

Independently of the conclusion which may be formed from dissection, the above fact affords a powerful argument in support of the author's doctrine ; one, indeed, which appears to us almost decisive. We cannot avoid feeling a degree of surprize that such a phenomenon should have so frequently occurred to every observer, and yet that we should have gone on invariably ascribing the affection to a cause which seems so obviously inconsistent with the appearance. A similar conclusion respecting the nature and formation of the disease is obtained from noticing the shape of the tumor itself, which consists of a large sac, connected with the artery by a neck, or more contracted part. This form is evidently incompatible with the idea of aneurysm depending on a general dilatation of the arterial tube ; while, on the contrary, it precisely corresponds with the appearances that might be supposed to present themselves on the hypothesis which is advanced by the present author.

After this statement of his own opinion respecting the origin and structure of aneurysm, the Professor deems it necessary to examine the doctrines which have been maintained by others ; and to shew how it has happened that anatomists have so generally formed a different conclusion. A review of opinions is often amusing and instructive ; and, in this case, it forms a necessary branch of the subject : but we think that the author has dilated it to an unnecessary length, and has gone into a number of details which can answer no end but to prove the extent of his erudition. It is, however, an important fact which we learn from this investigation, that the older writers generally adopted the correct opinion ; and that the doctrine of *true* aneurysm was first introduced by Fernelius, entirely on hypothetical grounds. The mistake has, indeed, in some degree, arisen from the doubts which have been entertained respecting what should be considered as the proper coats of the artery, and what as only the adventitious covering. Some anatomists of eminence have included, among the proper components of the artery, a part which M. Scarpa regards as merely a cellular sheath ; a substance not necessary to the existence or functions of the vessel, but added to it in order to preserve it in a proper situation, and to connect it with the neighbouring parts. Although we are inclined to think that the author's opinion respecting the coats of the arteries is not perfectly correct, and are disposed to prefer the arrangement suggested by Dr. Jones, in his admirable essay on hæmorrhage,

hemorrhage, yet we agree with the Professor as far as the cellular sheath is concerned. He observes that

'On cutting an artery across in its natural situation, it is observed to be inclosed in a sheath of soft, spongy, easily distended cellular substance, within which sheath, the segment of the cut artery retires and conceals itself. This cellular sheath, most evident round the great arterial trunks, is in some places more dense and abundant, in others less so. It is found in considerable quantity, and very dense round the curvature and trunk of the aorta, the carotid arteries, the mesenteric and renal arteries; but less so round the trunk of the brachial, femoral, and popliteal arteries. In all these parts, the cellular sheath, soft and easily distended, is only a continuation of the cellular membrane of the neighbouring parts.'

This circumstance, we think, sufficiently distinguishes between the essential and the accessory parts: the proper artery must necessarily remain with all its coats in close union with each other; while its more lax connection with the surrounding body is indicated by a difference in the degree of its retractile power.

Having established the doctrine of the universality of false aneurysm, the author is next led to inquire how it is formed; and it almost necessarily follows that, in internal parts, which are protected from accidental injury, this evil must take place in consequence of some local disease of the arterial tube, acting not on the whole but only on a part of its circumference. Professor S. in course supports this opinion. He conceives that there is

'A morbid degeneration of the internal coat of the artery, during which that coat becomes in some places weak, or very rigid and friable, and is thinned, separated, or ruptured, by the repeated jets of blood thrown from the heart. The internal coat of an artery being ulcerated or lacerated from a slow internal cause in some point of its circumference, the blood impelled by the heart begins immediately to ooze through the connections of the fibres of the muscular coat, and gradually to be effused into the interstices of the cellulæ covering, which supplies the place of a sheath to the injured artery, and forms for a certain space, a kind of *echymosis*, or *extravasation of blood*, slightly elevated upon the artery. Afterwards, the points of contact between the edges of the fibres of the muscular coat being insensibly separated, the arterial blood penetrating between them, fills and elevates, in a remarkable manner, the cellular covering of the artery, and raises it after the manner of an incipient tumour.'

That aneurysm is in reality formed in consequence of a disease of the vessel, many circumstances concur to shew. It is common in cases of aneurysm, either when the operation is attempted or when the body is examined after death, to

observe a manifest tendency to disease in many parts of the arterial system. We likewise not unfrequently meet with more aneurysms than one in the same subject; or, when the disease has been removed by an operation, we find it recur in some other part of the body.

This, then, may be admitted as a matter of fact that aneurysms, which are not produced by accidental injury, originate in some disease of the vessel; an important circumstance, for the knowledge of which we are certainly, in a great degree, indebted to the researches of Professor Scarpa: but respecting the nature of this disease it must be confessed that he does not supply us with much light. We are frequently told of the coats of the vessel being 'morbidly degenerated,' being 'rendered thin or rigid,' and becoming 'ulcerated, steatomatous, fungous, and squamous:' but all this is said in a general way, and cannot be considered as leading to any correct acquaintance with the subject. We are far from wishing to insinuate that our information on this point is superior to that of the author; nor would we venture to assert that a farther investigation of it would lead to any improvement in practice, or that, if we thoroughly understood the nature of the morbid change, we should be in the smallest degree able to counteract it:—but it is scarcely necessary to remark that this circumstance does not afford any argument against attempting to develope its nature; nor does it in any degree justify M. Scarpa in his use of so many vague and unmeaning phrases. Unless he had known more on the subject, it would have been better for him to have simply stated that the artery is diseased, and therefore more easily ruptured. Without entering into any detailed discussion respecting the nature of the morbid affection of the artery, he endeavours to confirm his opinion by shewing that this peculiar kind of disorganization is not an uncommon occurrence, and that it affects the heart and its appendages as well as the arterial trunks. He then describes the manner in which this state of the vessel favours the formation of the disease, evinces that the phenomena perfectly accord with the supposed cause, and enters into a minute examination of some of the descriptions and figures of individual cases of aneurysm, which have been published by modern writers; deducing from them the conclusion that the appearances, which fell under their observation, accord better with his own hypothesis than with that which the writers themselves adopted. He closes this part of his work with a series of propositions which we shall quote, because they present a complete summary of his opinions on

those points on which he differs the most materially from his contemporaries.

‘ From all that has been hitherto said with regard to aneurism in general, and more particularly of that of the aorta, it appears to me, that we may with certainty conclude, 1st, That this disease is invariably formed by the rupture of the proper coats of the artery. 2dly, That the aneurismal sac is never formed by a dilatation of the proper coats of the artery, but undoubtedly by the cellular sheath which the artery receives in common with the parts contiguous to it ; over which cellular sheath the pleura is placed in the thorax, and the peritoneum in the abdomen. 3dly, That if the aorta immediately above the heart appears sometimes increased beyond its natural diameter, this is not common to all the rest of the artery, and when the aorta in the vicinity of the heart yields to a dilatation greater than natural, this dilatation does not constitute, properly speaking, the essence of aneurism. 4thly, That there are none of those marks regarded by medical men as characteristic of aneurism from dilatation, which may not be met with in aneurism from rupture, including even the circumscribed figure of the tumour. 5thly, That the distinction of aneurism into *true* and *spurious* adopted in the schools, is only the production of a false theory ; since observation shews, that there is only one form of this disease, or that caused by a rupture of the proper coats of the artery, and an effusion of arterial blood into the cellular sheath which surrounds the ruptured artery.’

We have hitherto followed the author through that part of his treatise in which he dwells more particularly on the aneurysm of the aorta : but the doctrines which he lays down apply in an equal degree to the same affection when it exists in any other part of the body. We shall not, therefore, detain our readers with his remarks on the aneurysm of the extremities. His hypothesis respecting the origin and formation of the disease is the same in both cases ; and the farther comments which he makes, although important in a practical point of view, have less interest than those which involve a scientific principle. We therefore pass over the two next chapters, one on the aneurysm of the popliteal and femoral artery, and the other on the aneurysm of the brachial artery, and proceed to offer a very few observations on his suggestions respecting the cure of the disease.

With regard to this subject, though the author displays much of the same acuteness which is manifested in the former part of his work, yet on some points his opinion is more open to animadversion. He decidedly lays down the principle, which is indeed generally recognized in this country, that aneurysm can never be radically cured without an obliteration of the artery, for a certain space above and below the diseased part : but  
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with respect to his theory of this process,—the method by which the vessel becomes obliterated,—his observations are not altogether correct. The experiments of Dr. Thomson and Dr. Jones may be considered as having completely established this point, and as having brought to light some circumstances which were not known when M. Scarpa published his treatise ; and we are confident that he will have no hesitation in acknowledging that the theory proposed by Dr. Jones must supersede many of his own suggestions. The same kind of remark may be fairly made respecting his observations on the method of applying the ligature. It is evident that, when he recommends the application of a compress to the artery, and when he insists on the propriety of flattening the vessel, in preference to including it in a circular noose, he is proceeding on a false hypothesis. We deem it unnecessary, however, to dwell longer on this point, or to enter on any discussion of a question which our readers will be aware has been decided, both by the experiments and by the operations that have been performed in this country. The translator fairly states the imperfections of his original, and endeavours to supply them by referring to the publications which have appeared since Professor Scarpa wrote.

Several long chapters are yet unnoticed : but they refer principally to the minute details of practice. We have dwelt chiefly on that portion of the book which has the greatest claim to originality, and is the most connected with the general principles of physiology and pathology ; viz. the part which relates to the formation and structure of aneurysm. On this subject, we are disposed to say that the Professor has gone a great way towards the complete establishment of his theory, so that the existence of *true* aneurysm must at least be regarded as a very rare occurrence. It will be evident that we think highly of the general merits of the work, and that we give the author much credit for sagacity ; and even where we apprehend that he is defective, we impute the circumstance chiefly to his local situation, and to discoveries which have occurred since his treatise was composed. We must add, however, that his style is generally too diffuse ; and that he has unnecessarily augmented the bulk of his volume, by his long quotations and abstracts. The translator seems to have performed his office in a very creditable manner, and, by his judicious notes, has materially increased the value of the original.

ART. IX. *Zeal without Innovation* ; or the present State of Religion and Morals considered ; with a View to the Dispositions and Measures required for its Improvement. To which is subjoined, an Address to Young Clergymen ; intended to guard them against some prevalent Errors. 8vo. pp. 578. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1809.

WITH what ridicule would that philosopher be assailed, who, after having gravely lamented the imperfections of science, should publish a book intitled *Experiments for the purpose of making no Discoveries* ? What reception, then, ought we to give to a writer, who professes to heal the errors and defects in our religious and moral systems by *Zeal without Innovation*, or to *Improve without making Improvements* ? If things as they are be wrong, how can that zeal, which limits itself to keep them precisely as they are, be effectual to set them right ? *Innovation*, with some persons, has a most frightful and alarming sound : but how does it substantially differ from the words *Reformation* and *Amelioration* ? If the attainments of the present age surpass those of the past, if knowledge has made any progress, and if we are justified in accommodating things (as we certainly are) to the improvements which have taken place in mental science, *Innovation*, so far from being reprehensible, is a duty which the soundest policy requires us to exercise. "Time," as Lord Bacon observes, "is the greatest innovator ;" and by not listening to his suggestions, more mischief has been done than any little alterations which were demanded by a change of circumstances could have effected.

We cannot, therefore, adopt the alarm which the writer before us seems to feel on the score of *Innovation* ; nor can we perceive in what way his zeal can effect the objects which he professedly has in view, without the aid of such alterations as he may range under that term.

That he is a clergyman of a serious and pious mind, conscientiously and ardently attached to the ecclesiastical system of this country, we fully perceive ; and we also are ready to do him the justice of admitting that, to a certain extent, his arguments and remonstrances are just and commendable : but, in our estimation, he is too fearful of probing the wound to the bottom ; and he often appears more inclined to paralyze free inquiry by ungenerous and oblique insinuations, than openly and fairly to meet the difficulties which embarrass him. It is not, however, in his power to deter us by so illiberal a mode of warfare. We stand on too firm and too independent ground, and are too deeply impressed with a sense of our duty on these important occasions, to disguise our sentiments, or to fear the touch of Ithuriel's spear. Inus, the author will

find no lurking enmity to the Established Church. We believe her system to be well calculated to answer the purposes of piety, virtue, and social order : but we do not regard her formulæ as such complete models of perfection that no improvements can be made in them ; nor think that the Protestant Separatists, who are so numerous in this kingdom, have no kind of reason to urge for their dislike of some parts of the public ritual. Not to repeat the remarks of Archbishop Tillotson on the Athanasian creed, it will be sufficient to quote the words of the present Bishop of Lincoln (Dr. Tomline) in reference to its damnatory clauses : “ I am ready (he says) to acknowledge that, in my judgment, notwithstanding the authority of former times, our church would have acted more wisely, and more consistently with its general principles of mildness and toleration, if it had not adopted the damnatory clauses of the Athanasian creed.” *Elements of Christian Theology*, Vol. 2. p. 222. Now, as far as these clauses are concerned, the Bishop of Lincoln is a dissenter ; and he must, in order to be consistent with himself, so far wish to *innovate*, as to have these damning sentences expunged. We find it also admitted at p. 234. of the volume before us, that even those who are called Evangelical True Churchmen have their *salvos* ; and what does this mean ?

Moreover, has not our book of Common Prayer formerly undergone a revision ; and can it be said that Biblical Criticism and the Science of Christian Theology have made no advances since the epoch of that revival ? Would a few verbal alterations, to answer a *religious* purpose, be less innocent than the change of the word *Kingdoms* into that of *Dominions*, in the prayer for the High Court of Parliament, which was made to answer a *political* purpose ?—We put these plain questions to the present author ; since, with all his pretended display of liberality, he would involve those who suggest the necessity or propriety of any amendment of the public Form, in the anathema of being disaffected to the System. On the contrary, we repeat our firm conviction that the interests of the Established Church would be most essentially promoted by rendering her ritual more comprehensive, and by obviating some of the scruples of Dissenters. So hostile is this writer, however, to all changes, that he even objects to the introduction of a collection of Psalms and Hymns instead of the Old and New Versions of David's Psalms, though it is a practice which good sense recommends, and the utility of which has lately been proved in many churches and chapels. Several Bishops have recommended improvements in Psalmody ; particularly, if we mistake not, the late Bishop of

London, in one of his charges to his clergy : but how is this improvement to be effected under the auspices of Sternhold and Hopkins, or of Tate and Brady ? The modern collections of Psalms and Hymns, substituted in the room of these miserable rhymesters, are more devotional and more adapted to the christian scheme.

The object of this clergyman is twofold, viz. to check Separatism, and to promote the revival of genuine christianity in heart and practice throughout the community. As far as the latter design is concerned, much praise is due to his motive, and to the ardour with which he prosecutes it : but we think that he labours under a great mistake respecting the cure of Separatism. To urge clergymen to cultivate a devotional spirit, and to bestow sedulous attention on the important duties of their sacred order, is in character with a writer who professes a solicitude for the amendment of our religion and morals : but he surely cannot be so ignorant as to suppose that any clerical exemplariness of conduct can reach the grand emergency of the case which he has in contemplation. Neither are the Evangelical Clergy restrained from Free Prayer and extemporaneous preaching, by the orderly and zealous parish priests who are in their vicinity ; nor do the good lives of these Evangelical Divines meet the objections of Separatists. The points at issue are not merely those of morality. Doctrines, and the modes of exhibiting doctrines, must be discussed ; and it is nugatory to speculate on producing an extensive effect on the religious world without bringing some of these under investigation. If practical religion be the prominent object, it would seem to be a measure of sound policy to sacrifice speculative opinions, in some degree, to this grand desideratum, by narrowing the field of controversy, and enlarging the phalanx of christian warriors by more liberal terms of admission. Should it be judged otherwise, and any attempt at accommodation be regarded as dangerous, Innovation must be proscribed : but let not those who are of a different opinion be stigmatized as enemies of the Church and of Christianity itself.

Not to feel and applaud the devout energy with which the present writer urges his brethren, including the Bishops themselves, regularly 'to preach Christ with the simplicity in which the scriptures hold him forth,' and to be examples of the doctrine which they inculcate, would argue in us a criminal indifference to the interests of religion. In all his pages that are of this complexion and character, he is a clergyman much "*after our own heart*," and intitled to our warmest respect. No spark of this zeal do we wish to extinguish ; we are only

sorry that he is not more expanded in his views ; and that he does not, in estimating the real state of things, advert to the mental embarrassments under which many persons labour, and is not sufficiently explicit on those points which divide the christian world. The present is a reasoning age,; and it is not by declamation, by the nod of authority, nor by the thunder of anathemas, but by arguments addressed to the judgment and the understanding, that men can be convinced.

The author, indeed, is no advocate for what he terms ' a highly rectified spirit of orthodoxy,' nor, though he candidly apologizes for the *Evangelical Ministers*, does he approve of all their tenets\* and of all parts of their conduct ; yet he would not abate one jot of orthodoxy, as at present established ; nor alter a word, to obviate the necessity of mental salvos in the subscribing clergy, or to remove the objections of conscientious separatists. If the church be in danger from the increase of a sectarian spirit, is this the way to attack that spirit with success ?

Probably, if the author were at our elbow, he would say that the drift of his essay is to revive a truly serious and devotional spirit, and that his view is not the reformation of articles of faith, but the reformation of the heart. Of this we are aware : but he blends the danger of the church with the existing state of religion and morals, and glances at the recovery of the straying separatist to the established fold ; and we conceive it to be impossible to accomplish this com-

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\* The doctrine of Election, as maintained by these Calvinistic divines, is here stated as favourably for them as they would state it themselves. ' According to their views, (says the author) the *faith* and *holiness* of the people of God are included, with their final happiness, in the decree of their election.' Yet it is not maintained that the elect are uniformly holy. To obviate the difficulty arising from errors in the conduct of the elect, a nice distinction is made between *sliding* and *falling* : but we shall not meddle with it. Suffice it to observe that, though the scheme classes the elected among the holy, it does not tell us that all the holy will be elected : it is the language, however, of the Scriptures, that *God has chosen the godly for himself*, and is not this account more plain and a more direct inducement to pious exertion ? What possible utility can result from reversing this scriptural arrangement ? Is it not better to say with the sacred writings, that Election is included in faith and holiness, than that faith and holiness are included in Election ? Controversy can never be at an end if, in the first instance, we rashly pronounce on the Divine Decrees, and then make Scriptures speak in accordance with our apprehension of these divine mysteries ; instead of endeavouring from the Scriptures to learn the way to the Father.

plex object by any oratory which is merely ethical and pious. We are persuaded that he is in error when he speculates on the effects which would result from that revival of religion which he anticipates.

‘ Among a people taught by instructors, who bestowed their attention on the obvious features of Christianity, and whose discourses had a character of simple conception, and invariably practical drift, we should find religiousness expressing itself, not so much in *displays of extraordinary acuteness*, as in a meek but firm reliance on the few prominent truths revealed in the Scriptures, for hope and comfort; in an evident consciousness of the limited extent of their knowledge; in subdued tempers, and conscientious observance of the duties of their station.’

Persons who were taught by instructors whose sermons displayed the *obvious features of Christianity*, and who caught the zeal of their teachers, might not display any *extraordinary acuteness*; but, if religion was a serious pursuit with them, they would read and examine for themselves; and the consciousness of the limited extent of their knowledge would not keep them from wishing and endeavouring to know all that was in their power. After having excited a love of religious truth, we must not count on any supposed deficiency of acuteness, nor say to the devout inquirer, “Hitherto shalt thou go, but no farther.”

Notwithstanding the strictures which this writer passes on some parts of the conduct of those ministers who are termed *Evangelical*, he is, to a certain extent, their warm apologist, and concurs with them in many points of doctrine. He is fearful, also, lest the prejudices of the young clergy should operate to the disadvantage of the system which those ministers espouse. In reference to a preacher of this description, he thus speaks in the Address;

‘ His preaching from a little Bible, his attire, his gestures, his seemingly affected language, his extempore prayer, his bombastic hymn, no more prove his doctrine to be false than they prove it to be true. Nor indeed will a little admixture of Quixotism in the man, be a sufficient reason for considering the whole of his system, as founded in error: unless it can be demonstrated, that one part is so inseparable from the other, that we must receive the whole; or reject the whole.’

Supposing the constitution of the Church as now established to be in danger from the practices of the *Evangelical* clergy, and from the preachers of this class among the Separatists, it is important to advert to the features in the professional services of these divines, and to consider of some mode of counteracting the apprehended evil. Independently of the doctrines which

which run through all their discourses, their extemporaneous praying and preaching without notes are the circumstances which make the strongest impression on the populace; and many men, who are firmly attached to the Liturgy, have been inclined to think that the established clergy would more effectually repress Methodism by learning to address their flock with the freedom of extemporaneous eloquence \*, and by introducing a short prayer of their own composition, before the sermon, (in the manner of Bishop Wilson in his printed discourses,) than by any other proceeding. We pretend not to urge these measures; but the subject requires more discussion than it here receives; and if the plan were tried in some parishes with success, we should venture to ask, Ought the mere plea of its being an innovation on the common usage to prevent the practice from being made general? To foil the Methodists with their own weapons would be highly politic. The difference, in point of effect, between the oratory of the senate and the bar, and that of the pulpit, is well known; and if our established clergy, with their talents and superior literary qualifications, were to adopt this kind of eloquence, instead of reading their sermons, the methodistic declaimer must "kick the beam," and lose his popularity before his accomplished rival.

Several pages are employed in recommending the cultivation of a spirit of devotion, and in considering its probable effects on the ministers of religion at this period: but, if the 'cultivation of a spirit of devotion' includes (as it necessarily must) the improvement of devotional talents, it is difficult to conceive how a parish-priest, in the ordinary exercise of his ministerial duty, can bring them into use for the benefit of his congregation,

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\* The ministers of the Scotch Church never take a note into the pulpit; and their knowledge, zeal, and usefulness in their profession are most eminent. This writer, however, in his advice to the young clergy, cautions them against what is called *extempore-preaching*, and would allow it only to aged ministers; not considering that, if this habit of preaching without notes be not commenced early in life, it cannot be adopted in its decline. He confesses with regret the intrusion of worldly and incompetent men into the priesthood, and regards the exclusion of such persons as impossible. Perhaps their total exclusion is impossible: but if clergymen did not use even notes, many who now hold situations in the church through interest, without proper qualifications for the office, would necessarily be excluded. Study and elocution would be indispensable; and the zig-zag printed sermons, imitating MSS, "to cheat the gallery critic," would stand them in little stead. At least, clergymen must get their sermons *by heart*, and even this practice would have no bad effect on their lives.

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unless he avails himself of the opportunity of introducing a prayer of his own composition, instead of the usual "*Prævent us, O Lord!*" &c. before the sermon. Following the practice of Wilson and Zollikofer, our clergy might properly employ a prayer adapted to the discourse which was about to be delivered; and while this would violate no rule of the Church, it would be an *innovation* that must have its use in inducing many, who are methodistically inclined, to prefer the church to the conventicle.

We concur with this writer in the necessity of some measures for counteracting the growth of a sect. by which our churches are thinned, but we differ with him respecting the means. His zeal, in our judgment, is narrowed in the extreme, and not tempered with that truly philosophic mind which he recommends at p. 214. He lets "*I dare not wait upon I would.*" He is desirous of accomplishing a darling object; and yet he resists all methods, even those of the mildest nature, which promise in a direct way to promote his views.

After a serious lamentation over the growing impiety of the age, by which multitudes are induced 'to pass religion by, with equal indifference, whether she appear dressed in cathedral state, or in the plainer attire of parochial service;' and after expressions of deep concern at the increase of Separatism; the author proceeds to offer some liberal remarks (as he terms them) for the consideration of Separatists: but we suspect that this description of religionists will not pronounce them to be very liberal, nor be conciliated by them. They will not feel themselves much obliged to him for representing 'the constitution of dissenting churches as tending to democracy;' nor will they be likely to be convinced by being told that 'continuance of dissent from the national church, which their ancestors began, may be regarded as the natural consequence of a common infirmity:' much less will they relish that 'gentle' persuasion, wrapped up in a compliment to existing dissenters, at the expence of the original nonconformists, here called 'the broachers of separatism,' which breathes love 'to the pious among them, acknowledges the innocence of the children, while it sees the *sin of the fathers*;' and generously admits the possibility of 'their getting to heaven by those very forms, which might have had their origin in *pride, in refractoriness, or in sedition.*' (p. 217, 218.) This *gentle* argument is in one respect like brother Peter's *plain* argument, in the "Tale of the Tub:" it is equally logical and convincing.

As to the Established Church, the author admits that it has 'marks of human imbecility,' and that 'it has something to amend:' but he protests against alterations, esteeming the experiment



periment hazardous. It is probable that the fears here expressed prevail with those from whom alone changes can mildly proceed, and that we must confide solely in the piety and virtue of the clergy to meet the moral and religious difficulties under which we at present labour. The influence of this body is certainly great; and this influence, in a spiritual view, cannot fail of being augmented by a sedulous attention to the discharge of the duties of their profession. Nothing can be more judicious than the hints here given on the importance of the clerical character:

‘ I would not have the young clergyman lay the whole stress of expectation on the performance of his professional duties, like those who look for no effect, but where there is a noisy operation. It should be settled in his mind, that there is a mighty force in *example alone*; and he should habituate himself to expect much from that. Consider, therefore, the constant exhibition of Christianity in your own person, as a very principal reason for which you dwell among those whom you have to teach. Consider the eyes of all your flock as turned upon your life every day, as their ears are open to your sermon on the Sunday; and be desirous, that the exemplification of what you teach may be complete. Teach them by facts, as well as by words. Show them what obedience is, by being yourselves obedient; what submission is, by submitting patiently to what is trying; what kindness is, by acts of kindness. Let them see you acting conformably to your condition in life: liberal, if affluent; if confined to a slender income, neither complaining at your lot, nor ridiculously solicitous to make it appear better than it is, nor catering, by cringing or sordid arts, to render it so. Let your life be an example not only of virtue, but of sanctity; and of sanctity, endearing by amiableness, and illuminated by cheerfulness; that the common instructor of the parish may be accounted, not only one of the best, but one of the happiest creatures of the place. I am much mistaken, if on examining into the causes which, under God, contribute to the good effect of a resident teacher’s ministry, the greatest part of the operation would not be found to lie in this, that the instructor exemplified in his own person, what he enforced on his auditory: that he was known to be the very man himself, which he taught others to be: that he not only

“ Allur’d to brighter worlds, but led the way.”

As far as this and other points connected with the discharge of clerical duties are concerned, we recommend the pages before us to the repeated perusal of all the clergy, but particularly of the younger members of that sacred order; and we should be happy to find that the wholesome advice which is here offered had the effect of making them studious, serious, devotional, evangelical, (in the true sense of the word,) and watching for the souls of their respective flocks, as those who

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must give an account of their charge to the Redeemer and Judge of all men. Such a set of clergy would accomplish much, though not every thing.

ART. X. *The History of the World, from the Reign of Alexander to that of Augustus, comprehending the latter Ages of European Greece, and the History of the Greek Kingdoms in Asia and Africa, from their Foundation to their Destruction; with a Preliminary Survey of Alexander's Conquests, and an Estimate of his Plans for their Consolidation and Improvement.* By John Gillies, LL.D. F.R.S. and S.A. London, F.R.S. Edinburgh, and Historiographer to His Majesty for Scotland. 2 Vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

IN his former work on the History of Antient Greece, it was the object of Dr. Gillies to trace the progress of the Greeks from the earliest notices of them which history has preserved, to the period of the subversion of their liberties and independence, including an account of the Macedonian conquest; and he describes, in the production now before us, the fortunes that befel their descendants in the new sovereignties which sprang out of the vast acquisitions of Alexander. Such we consider to have been the primary intention of these volumes; although the author occasionally deviates into other tracks, and pursues them more at length than is consistent with his leading design.

A fairer field for literary ambition to signalize itself cannot well be imagined. It is very much untrodden ground. The respectable Rollin, it is true, has gone over it, but he did not survey it with the eye of a statesman, nor apply to it the principles of enlightened criticism; he merely acted the part of a translator, and did not even pretend to have done any thing more. Who, then, that indulges liberal curiosity will not applaud the attempt to throw all the light which may be collected from the scanty remains of antiquity, on the progress and effects of Greek domination in Asia and Africa? This is an undertaking of which the due execution would constitute a title to honourable distinction, and the accomplishment of which requires no ordinary qualifications.

Various and rare as these qualifications and attainments must be allowed to be, it does not appear to us that the present author has betrayed any deficiency with respect to them. His volumes bear witness that he was well acquainted with the sources whence his materials must be procured, and that he has not been wanting in the diligence and perseverance which were necessary in order to collect them. He has ranged over  
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the pages of all the principal antient historians, sacred and profane, Herodotus, Xenophon, Polybius, Diodorus, Arrian, Plutarch, Strabo, Josephus, Pausanias, Ælian, Livy, Curtius, Tacitus, Pliny, Justin, &c. and has applied also to modern sources of historical deduction and geographical illustration. These materials being prepared, the next point was to select with judgment, and to arrange with skill; and it is in regard to these last-mentioned functions that Dr. Gillies, we apprehend, will have to grapple with criticism; since we think that he will find it difficult to vindicate this monument of his learning and industry from the charges of deficient and faulty disposition, and of an undue admixture of extraneous matter. To the more important requisites, however, of a conductor through these paths of history, Dr. G.'s pretensions will be acknowledged; and he will be found a guide who is well acquainted not merely with the general bearings of the country and with its high ways, but with its bye-roads and sequestered parts, and who is familiar with all the objects in it which most deserve notice and attention.

The representations given by Dr. Gillies, of the duties of an historian, and of the principal design of history, are striking and just:

‘In my ambition to heighten the interest of this narrative with the present age and posterity, I have felt the necessity of continually extending my researches beyond the chronology of kings, the intrigues of courts, the dry and often doubtful details of negotiations and battles. Without neglecting any of these indispensable rather than greatly edifying matters, my attention has been chiefly directed to objects of more allurements or more permanency; the local circumstances, occupations, and manners of communities at large, and of the various ranks of persons composing them; a curious and uncultivated branch of history, towards the advancement of which I have studied to unite even the scantiest and most scattered sources of information that either the fragments of antiquity have delivered down, or the casual notices of modern travellers have laid open.’—

‘The grave and judicious Polybius composed his invaluable work to explain by what means the Romans, in the space of fifty-three years, commencing with the second Punic war, acquired a decided preponderancy over all those powers, which, in the course of the following century, they reduced into provinces. It was, he thought, a task more easy and more animating to trace the progress of the rising commonwealth, than to rake into the vices and miseries of decaying monarchies: and the same motives which swayed Polybius, have generally actuated all succeeding historians; though it may be doubted whether their narratives would not have proved more useful to posterity if, instead of continually expatiating on the wisdom and good management of the victors, they had been at more pains to impress the sad lessons to be learned from the wretched impolicy of the vanquished.’

As introductory to the professed subject of these volumes, the author has inserted a very elaborate view of the state of Asia and of the neighbouring countries of Egypt and Ethiopia, from the earliest times to the period of the subjugation of the two former. He is a believer in the conquests of Sesostris, and gives credit to the accounts of the victorious and splendid reigns of Ninus and Semiramis, as well as the subsequent revolutions which antient writers have involved in so much fiction; and he is an advocate for the early high advances of the Ethiopians, Egyptians, and Orientals, in civilization and the arts. He has also collected with great industry the notices which have come down to us of a very extensive and active commerce, carried on in very remote times, and comments on them with great acuteness and ingenuity.

The cause which Dr. G. assigns for the frequency of revolutions in Asia is, we think, the philosophical and the true reason :

‘ A lively writer (Montesquien) cited and approved by a learned one (Gibbon) ascribes the frequent revolutions in Asia to the extremes of cold and heat, which in that continent immediately touch each other, without any intervening degree of middle temperature. But consistently with the records of history, indispensable premises to such general conclusions, the vicissitudes in the eastern world may more truly be referred to the striking contrast between fierce Nomades with their warlike manners and habits, and the softened civilization in their neighbourhood of men collected in great cities, dissolved in the luxury of baths and harems. If the Seythians often descended in terror from their cold mountains, the shepherds of Arabia and Ethiopia, as we shall see presently, emerged with a successful boldness from their scorching plains. The Medes inhabiting a country more southern than Spain, held away, during their rude pastoral state, for a century and a half in Upper Asia. But corrupted by their conquests in Assyria, the Medes lost their military prowess without improving in civil wisdom; and thereupon submitted to Cyrus and his Persians, a people visited by a still warmer sun, but who then lived in scattered villages, subsisted chiefly by hunting and pasturage, and were commonly clothed in the skins of wild beasts.’

The vast extent and wide ramifications of antient commerce are here ascribed to its connection with religion, and to its being in the hands and under the management of the ministers of sacred offices. Dr. Gillies observes that ‘ the spice of India, the perfumes of Arabia, the amber of Prussia, the gold of Ethiopia, the silver of Spain, and the tin of Britain, were, according to the uniform testimony of antiquity, produced most perfectly and most abundantly at the farthest extremities of the commercial world; they were stored up, however, in greatest plenty

plenty in places near to its centre, and employed or consumed with most profusion in Egypt and Babylonia.' Dr. G. also takes notice of the progress which the Egyptian priests had made in astronomy, and then states that the sphere of their activity 'extended itself to all those occupations and pursuits most conducive to the improvement of society. They were not only conversant with the celestial motions, regulating the rise and inundations of the Nile; they were not only astronomers and seers, but geographers, engineers, architects, and physicians, directors of great undertakings in agriculture, and protectors, through the sanctity of their temples, of that extended commerce which, as the history of all ages attests, necessity will often produce and maintain among remote and barbarous nations.'

In his account of the constitution of the city of Meroe, Dr. G. fully develops his notion of the antient emporia of commerce, and of the causes of their security and prosperity.

'The sandy ocean of Africa contained many ancient wonders in its vast bosom, of which the greatest was Meroe, a broad island compared in form to a shield, between the thirteenth and eighteenth degrees of north latitude, washed on its eastern and western sides respectively, by the Astaboras and the Nile. Its capital, called also Meroe, stood near the site of the modern Chendi, was immemorably a great city, and so anciently connected with Thebes in Egypt, that the citizens of those places conjunctly, each of which was then governed by its own magistrates, built the far-famed temple of Jupiter Hammon, on a rich speck of the leopards skin, ten days journey north west of Thebes, and now clearly proved to be the Oasis of Siwah. The Astaboras, now Takazzé, washing Meroe on the east, is periodically joined by a still more eastern stream flowing from Tigré in Abyssinia, and called Mareb "the obscure," because it hides itself one part of the year in the sands, afterwards emerging in the rainy season to join the Takazzé. The Nile enclosing Meroe on the west, is in like manner joined fourscore miles south of Chendi by the Astapus, a more western river, which flows from remote and unknown sources far to the south west of Abyssinia, and which, as it is very deep, and preserves during the whole year an undiminished stream, deserves to be regarded as surpassing the Abyssinian Nile, both in the mass of its waters, and the length of its course. Of this river Astapus, the main component part of the Egyptian Nile, none of the inquisitive antients were able to discover the source, and it has still concealed its head from the curiosity of the moderns.

'Encompassed by watery boundaries so interesting in history, Meroe was celebrated for its profusion of precious metals, and of gems still more precious. It abounded beyond all countries in ebony; and with this valuable wood, it abounds to the present day. In the flourishing age of the Ethiopians, it is said to have been defended by upwards of two hundred thousand soldiers, and enriched by double that number of industrious artizans. But the circum-

stance

stance especially deserving regard is, that it remained a theocracy or sacerdotal government down to the learned age of Ptolemy Philadelphus, when King Ergamenes of Meroe, who had imbibed enough of Greek philosophy to liberate him from cowardly superstition, but too little to teach him either humanity or good policy, massacred the collective body of priests, ministers of the golden temple, who had long and wisely governed both prince and people. Having committed this enormity, the usurper coerced by the arm of power a nation that had been immemorially governed by the mere force of opinion. Before a melancholy revolution eternally fatal to the prosperity of Meroe, that island may be considered as the subsisting model of a government, anciently very prevalent, and which without arms, and with a few corporal punishments, overawed the minds of men, and concentrated their exertions, taught them to rear temples, and form sacred enclosures, haunts indeed of superstition, but seats also of industry and commerce; and which by the labours of peace adorned many parts of the ancient continent with great cities before the iron age of conquerors and destroyers. In a subsequent part of this work, we shall see other models of sacerdotal governments, subsisting in Lesser Asia down to the reign of Augustus.

The traditions of the Abyssinians, often of little value in themselves, are corroborated by history and monuments, when they affirm that their capital Axum, and to the south of Axum, Azab or Saba, were anciently renowned for religion and traffick. Both these cities were intimately connected with Meroe, and Meroe itself stood in a similar connection with Thebes in Egypt, since the Thebans and Meroites established conjunctly the colony of Ammonium in Libya. The historical account of this establishment, as well as the near relationship among all those remote cities, not to mention Elephantina, This, and Memphis, is strongly attested in the uniformity of their still subsisting remains; every where that massive Egyptian style, unrivalled in solidity and durability: huge pillars of stone, roofed with long parallel beams of the same unperishing material: and these either traversed by shorter ones, or lying contiguous to each other, and thus forming stupendous blocks thirty and sometimes forty feet long. The same relationship is attested in the agreement of Ethiopian and Egyptian hieroglyphics. That mode of writing, which, after the invention of alphabetic characters, came to be confined in Egypt to sacred purposes, still continued to be employed for all ordinary transactions in Ethiopia. This latter country, having preserved its ancient theocratic government, also retained the ancient picture writing or symbols, which the priests of Thebes and Meroe had found highly useful, not in the affairs only of religion, but in those of common life, particularly in commerce. By casting an eye on the map of Africa, the reader will perceive that the various cities above named, form two distinct chains of staples or stations on opposite sides of the Nubian desert; one northward in the line of Elephantina, Thebes, This, and Memphis; another southward in the line of Meroe, Axum, Assab or Saba. Carriers were not wanting to connect the remotest emporia on opposite sides of the sandy ocean: the troops from Tema and Sheba, Arabian and Ethiopian nomades, whose

whose commercial expeditions are conspicuous in the earliest records of the East.'

The country next mentioned formed a link of communication between Egypt and Ethiopia, and India ;

' Egypt, and Ethiopia above Egypt, are separated by the Red sea from Arabia, a vast triangle whose sides are formed by that sea and the Persian gulph, and whose basis is the Indian ocean. The desert regions towards its centre, might be not improperly classed with the sandy Sakara in correspondent latitudes of Africa. But in many parts nearer to the coast, and particularly at Sabæa on the Red sea, and Omanum on the Persian gulph, Arabia admits the culture of vines and of palm trees ; and from participating in those ordinary benefits was naturally viewed by men, as they emerged from the gloom of the neighbouring wilderness, with a delight heightened by contrast, and described with transports stronger and more glowing than the greatest insulated beauty is able to inspire. It was called the " Happy Arabia," a name which Sabæa more particularly deserved, as the land of frankincense, an article of inestimable value among nations with whom perfumes were favourite and habitual luxuries, and which being highly prized, and extravagantly indulged in by themselves, were superstitiously consumed in vast profusion on the altars of their gods.

' But another article equally recommended by luxury, and demanded by imperious necessity, was wanting in both Ethiopias, as Adel and Yemen were sometimes called. This article is spice in all its different kinds, essential as a preservative against putrid maladies in all warm countries, especially those frequently laid under water, either by the natural floods of rivers, or by artificial irrigations for the purposes of tillage. Pepper was conveyed, as we have seen, from India to Egypt by caravans, as early as the age of Joseph. To obtain the same commodity by sea, the Sabæans gradually explored the coasts between the Arabian and Persian gulph ; became the first navigators on the Erythrean sea, and thus rendered the two Sabas emporia for the aromatics of the coast of Malabar as well as for the spices of Taprobana or Ceylon ; so that the happy Arabia, in addition to its native perfumes, early breathed foreign odours of a still superior quality.'

Having shewn that Phœnicea was peopled from Sabæa, the author observes that

' The incidents attending this colonization are unknown, but the purpose for which it was effected speedily and visibly declared itself in the commercial exertions of the Phœnicians, whose shores seventeen centuries before Christ are said to have been covered with ships as with a garment ; and who shortly after that period appear from profane writers to have exchanged in their markets the metals of Spain and Britain for all the most coveted productions of the East and South. Even before that early date the migration of Abram into Canaan, points to a subsisting commercial communication between the countries around the Mediterranean sea and those of Upper

Asia. In the age of that patriarch, Damascus was already a well known city. Emessa or Hems, Epiphania or Hamath, and Hieropolis the temple of the Syrian goddess on the right bank of the Euphrates, were stations or emporia which all of them remounted to immemorial antiquity. It should seem, therefore, that travelling traders between Upper and Lower Asia already explored the routes which they were destined thenceforwards to pursue, and perhaps had discovered those hidden secrets of the wilderness, which enabled them boldly to plunge through the sandy ocean of Palmyra or Tadmor, a station not established, but enlarged and strengthened by Solomon, and adorned under the first successors of Alexander, with those prodigies of architectural magnificence, which, though totally unnoticed by ancient authors, clearly tell even in ruins their own story; ruins still attesting the magnitude of commerce carried on by caravans, since to that solely, Palmyra owed its opulence and splendour.

Speaking of the several countries of antiquity which were united together by commercial intercourse, namely Egypt, Ethiopia, the Lesser Asia, Assyria, and Ariana, Dr. Gillies remarks :

‘ In each of them, in the midst of savage ferocity and rude barbarism, the routes of commerce were marked with opulence and elegance : great cities subsisted and flourished, protected through the influence of superstition rather than the strength of arms ; under priestly magistrates “ whose eye was their law and whose tongue was their oracle,” war-like Nomades mixed in salutary intercourse with peaceful artisans ; and on the shores of the Euxine and Caspian, as well as in the central route through Asia, there were many bold and useful undertakings and many indubitable proofs of very high civilization. But as in history general description, how well soever it may be authenticated, never supersedes the necessity of particular and precise facts, I shall, in reference to the threefold division above given of Asia, having already spoken of Babyloa in Assyria, now give some account of Bactra in Ariana, and of Pessinus in Lesser Asia.’

We were inclined to quote these descriptions of Bactra and Pessinus, but our limits forbid.

The comparative civilization of favoured spots of Asia, with their advancement in many of the arts at an early period of the world, is indisputable ; the only question seems to be as to the degree of it ; and we are inclined to believe that those who rate it low come nearest to the truth.

Curious and important as are the facts contained in this *Preliminary Survey*, and valuable as are the observations which accompany them, we cannot help thinking that it is composed on much too large a scale, considering it as an introductory essay. It occupies two hundred quarto pages of the present work, and might form a fit subject for a separate publication. It is besides wholly out of its place in these volumes ; since they do



do not embrace Alexander's conquests, in which case alone it would have been properly introduced, but commence with the death of that monarch. We must remark, also, that Dr. G. has strangely blended with this account of the antiquities of Asia, his observations on the character, views, and proceedings of the Macedonian hero. We can see no reason why those matters were not kept quite distinct; which might easily have been done, since the author had only to place the second, third, and fourth sections of the Preliminary Survey before the first, which so naturally connects itself with the fifth. Indeed the truth seems to be that, in the work itself, as well as in this preliminary part, very valuable materials in great abundance are brought together, without sufficient time and labour having been bestowed on assorting, arranging, and connecting them; or at least without adequate success having attended any such labour, if exerted.

With Dr. Gillies as insisting on the liberal and comprehensive views of the Macedonian conqueror, we have no fault to find, except that he dwells too exclusively on them, while he passes too lightly over the enormities which cast so dark a shade on Alexander's memory. By comparing the representations of the detractors of that monarch with those of Dr. G., we shall probably arrive at a fair estimate of the hero's character.

'In the usual course of his behaviour, (says our historian,) he was mild, temperate, and just; yet, on several important occasions, he was the victim both of anger and of pleasure; the two most ordinary sources of human frailty. But such personal excellencies or defects disappear before the splendour of his public life, the regular boldness of his plans, and the unrivalled magnitude of his performances. Endowed with an alertness and energy peculiarly his own, he nevertheless practised patiently in war the lessons derived from Philip, the greatest of Generals. In his civil administration, and the prudent management of his conquests, he adhered as invariably to maxims instilled by Aristotle the greatest of philosophers. This singularity in his proceedings, as regulated by the lessons and authority of two such men, and of such opposite principles or purposes, strangely overlooked as it has been by historians and philosophers of Europe, was clearly recognized by Mandanis, an Indian and a priest, when he declared the invading Macedonian the only proficient in wisdom that he had ever known even by report, at the head of a victorious army.'

The following extract, although diffuse, we are induced to copy, because it contains a summary of those plans by which the Macedonian hoped to consolidate his vast empire, and to ensure its permanency:

'According to authentic historians, Alexander bounded his empire northward, by the Danube and the Jaxartes. In a former part of this work, we have seen his proceedings on the banks of these great rivers, which flow respectively into the Euxine and Caspian; and had occasion to observe with what admirable prudence he avoided a useless conflict with the Scythian nations beyond them, at the same time that he adopted the surest means for overawing such irreclaimable barbarians, and confining them in future within their native wilderness. The bleak Scythian desert led to nothing more valuable beyond it: the reverse was the case with the burning sands of Arabia. The southern shores of that peninsula were immemorably inhabited, as we have seen, by the Sabæans, an industrious and enlightened people, cultivating the most valuable productions, and carrying on many rich branches of commerce.

'Alexander, we are told, had formed the resolution of penetrating thither, and as his armies were to be accompanied and seconded by fleets, (the best means for securing success,) he had shortly after his return to Babylon, sent down successively into the Persian gulph, three vessels for exploring and examining the contiguous coasts. The first of these vessels, commanded by Archias, proceeded only to Tylos or Tyrus, formerly mentioned as a well known mart of the Phœnicians, and still subsisting as the center of the modern fishery for pearls. The second vessel, navigated by Androsthenes, advanced but a little farther; and even Hiero, a Greek of Cilicia, by whom the third ship was conducted, far less surpassed his precursors than he fell short of the object which his employer had recommended to him; which was to circumnavigate the whole of Arabia from the mouth of the Euphrates to the inmost recess of the Red Sea. But Hiero barely beheld Cape Syagros, the great eastern promontory; and after viewing the conflict of the waves there, hastened back to describe this forbidding obstacle, in nearly the same terms of exaggeration, which were used by the first Portuguese mariners, who saw, without doubting, the Cape of Good Hope. But Alexander was alike proof against fear and imposture; with him the voyages hitherto undertaken were mere preludes; and at the fatal moment which terminated all his projects, Nearchus the friend of his youth, and who had already conducted a great fleet in safety from the Indus to the Tigris, was prepared to resume the circumnavigation of Arabia with an assured prospect of success. Had this design been carried into execution, facilities would thereby have been afforded for counteracting by fleets of victuallers, the natural sterility of the country; and Alexander, who had defeated and overawed the firmer Scythians, would easily have surmounted the disunited hostility of the Arab tribes; an hostility only formidable to well disciplined armies, when the congenial enthusiasm of Mahomet gave to the whole nation one decided impulse. By the success of this undertaking in its full extent, the Macedonian dominions southward would have been defined by the region of perfumes on both sides of the Red Sea; the Adel and Yemen of eastern geographers, or the two Ethiopias of the Greeks.

With

With regard to his eastern limits, Alexander having occupied the mountainous inlets to Hindostan, erected them into the satrapy of Paropamisus; a province famous in modern times, as the primitive seat of the Afghans or Abdalli, and the root of their powerful kingdom of Candahar, which has arisen with such rapidity upon the divisions and disasters of the Persian and Mogul empires. Through this elevated district, he proceeded above three hundred miles to Taxila on the Indus, overran the country watered by that great river and its tributary eastern streams, treated his vanquished enemies with most admired generosity, raised the fortresses of Nicæa and Bucephalia on the Hydaspes, and erected his stupendous altars on the Hyphasis. Having returned to Taxila, now Attock, on the Indus, he traversed southward from that city an extent of nearly seven hundred miles to the sea; built the strong hold of Pattala at the top of the Indian Delta; and then proceeded homeward in person with his army, while his fleet was committed to Nearchus to explore the coasts of the Erythræan sea between India and Assyria. With this bold outline, the subordinate parts corresponded. The highlands of Paropamisus, he observed, separate the waters of that part of Asia; and the courses of the Indus, Oxus, and other great rivers formed those deep vallies affording the only safe passes either for armies or caravans. By building Alexandria, now Candahar, he chose the fittest site for securing the communication between India and Persia; and by means of a more northern Alexandria, now Cabul, he connected, in like manner, the former country with Bactriana, whose capital, Bactra, enjoyed, as we have seen, an early commercial intercourse with the emporia on the Caspian and Euxine seas, and through them with many flourishing cities in Lesser Asia.

In his return from India, Alexander, it is well known, penetrated through the inhospitable solitudes of Carmania and Gedrosia; and from this, the least profitable of all his expeditions, he could only learn that in the actual state of those frightful regions, no safe communication by them could possibly be introduced. But on the skirts of these dreary wastes, having discovered that fertility began with the Arachosian and Arian mountains, he founded two Alexandrias, respectively in Aria and Arachosia, and also the strong hold of Prophthasia in Saranga, which, with many other cities less conspicuous or less permanent, formed a chain of fortresses and factories upon the most direct central route from the Indus to the Euphrates. These undertakings for maintaining an intercourse with India by land and sea, perfectly accord with his transactions above related with its native princes; and both unitedly attest his resolution of acquiring a paramount authority in Hindostan, which, had he lived solidly to establish (it), would have carried back by the space of 2000 years the æra of European domination over that remote eastern region.

In the west only, the designs of Alexander stopped short at bare projects. But a prince who had proceeded to the country of spices, and taken measures for penetrating to the country of perfumes, could not overlook objects yet more important in commerce, and chiefly abounding in Spain, or Tartessus, at the western extremity of the Mediterranean. The desire of exploring this country, which formed the

the Peru and Mexico of antiquity, had determined Alexander to carry his arms to the pillars of Hercules. With this view, we are told, he had been careful to inform himself concerning the coasts west of Greece and Egypt; and through the assistance of plans furnished to him by Phœnicians and Greeks, who had long frequented those seas, he judiciously selected and marked with his own hand, the sites best fitted for harbours and emporia, docks and arsenals. Spacious roads were to be drawn along the tracts most convenient for caravans; many protecting temples were to be erected; and the whole circuit of the Mediterranean was to be commanded by fleets and armies, sufficient to restrain depredations by sea and land, and to overawe the native barbarians of Africa and the west of Europe.'

If, in opposition to the opinion of Livy, we agree with Dr. Gillies in thinking that, had Alexander lived to carry into execution his designs with respect to Italy, the fortunes of Rome must have yielded to Macedonian ascendancy, yet we feel surprized, when we bear in mind his minute and detailed account of Agathocles's invasion of the Carthaginian territories, to find him hazarding the assertion that it would have been from Carthage that the conqueror's plans would have met with the most serious obstruction.

The account which the author gives of the immediate successors of Alexander, with which the *History* itself commences, has been drawn up with great ability and judgment. The characters, views, and designs of the respective chiefs are distinctly traced and luminously exhibited. In the narrative of the busy and eventful period between the death of Alexander and the battle of Ipsus, the reader proceeds unembarrassed and with unabating interest. We behold the new sovereignties assuming form and shape, and arising out of the vast Macedonian states and acquisitions: sovereignties which in their very commencement are powerful, which long continue mighty and flourishing, but which at length succumb under the prowess and wiles of Rome, and finally serve to swell the unwieldy bulk of that empire.

As an example of the historian's care in noticing events which produce important effects, and which are partly or wholly the causes of memorable changes and revolutions, we quote the subsequent passage:

'The elevation of Antipater to the regency, afforded a fairer prospect of happiness than the empire had hitherto enjoyed. The unblemished dignity of his character, and his long and prosperous exercise of delegated power in Macedon, promised an administration equally prudent and vigorous; unlogged by competition, undisturbed by the intrigues of envy. Yet, besides his advanced age, for he was now in his seventy-seventh year, various circumstances, naturally

turally resulting from his connection and habits, tended to blast the public hope. His contest with Eumenes about the government of the city of Cardia, in the Thracian Chersonesus, produced an irreconcilable enmity with the person best qualified to second his views when useful, or to correct them when pernicious. Eumenes, who was now master of the finest provinces of Lesser Asia, was not of a disposition tamely to resign them to the abetter of his own domestic foes, the little tyrants of Cardia, and who had opposed both his father and himself in their zeal for erecting that state into a commonwealth. As the lieutenant and representative of the murdered Perdiccas, Eumenes prepared to set Antipater at defiance; and thus the party-disputes, in the little Greek city of Cardia, embroiled the dissensions in a great empire, and rendered them incurable.

Another unfavourable circumstance disqualifying Antipater for the regency, was his uninterrupted residence in Europe during a long life. He was unacquainted with the affairs of Asia, which, in his mind, occupied but a dark and narrow place; while Greece and Macedon, which he had long prosperously governed, shone with a magnified splendour far beyond their comparative importance. Alexander's great projects for improving the central provinces of Asia, for adorning and enriching Babylon, the natural seat of empire, and for harmonising into one social and commercial system the greatest nations of the earth; all these designs were abandoned; the new harbours which he was constructing, the new routes for traffic which he was opening, the new and admirable institutions through which in the space of a few years he had disciplined into manhood the most effeminate of slaves, and reclaimed into humanity the most intractable of barbarians. Antipater was contented with appointing governors for the Asiatic provinces; his narrow span of life admitted not of remote plans of melioration; he was solicitous chiefly, that the revenues of Asia should be carefully collected, and regularly transmitted to Macedon; in which country, the object of his affections, because the scene of his glory, he purposed to spend the remainder of his days, and from thence, in the name of the kings, to issue his imperial mandates for the government of the eastern world.'

After the defeat and fall of the mighty Antigonus, at the fatal battle of Ipsus, his son Demetrius obtained by enterprize and address the throne of Macedonia; and became, although he afterward lost it, the founder of the last dynasty of that kingdom. One of the consequences resulting from the battle of Ipsus was that the principal part of Macedonian Asia was rendered subject to Seleucus; while Ptolemy's possession of Coelosyria and Phœnicia, in addition to Egypt and Cyrenaica, was confirmed. The ever-changing fortunes of Demetrius, after he had become master of Macedonia, again threw him into the hands of Seleucus, who retained him a captive for the remainder of his life. As the account of his confinement indicates traits which shew the spirit of the times, and the

author's sketch of Demetrius exhibits as singular a character as any that is to be found in history, we insert the passage in which both are contained :

' Seleucus sent him to the Syrian Cheronesus, a projecture of land sixty miles south of Antioch, and directly opposite to the isle of Cyprus; once the pride of Demetrius, being the prize of his great naval victory. Antigonus, when he learned his captivity, with the filial affection that characterized many successive princes of their family, offered himself and all his possessions to recover his father's freedom. Seleucus denied his request, but also rejected with scorn the bribe of two thousand talents from Lysimachus to purchase his prisoner's death. Demetrius was kept in easy confinement, being allowed the exercise of hunting, and all other amusements, within the precincts of his well-guarded peninsula, which, from the geography of its mountains, bays, and rivers, was distinguished by names derived from the Macedonian district of Pella. But the want of liberty, and perhaps the sight of Cyprus, so agonizing to his ambition, gradually blunted the relish for manly pleasures. He gave himself up to intemperance and sloth, writing to his son Antigonus to make no more intercession in his favour, to consider him thenceforward as dead, to refuse credit to any letters which his enemies might forge in his name, and to defend with vigilance and spirit the Greek cities yet acknowledging his authority. Antigonus, by complying with this advice, was enabled, nine years after his father's death, to recover his abdicated kingdom of Macedon. Demetrius died in the third year of his captivity, and fifty-fourth of his age. The above-mentioned letter to Antigonus is the last recorded transaction of a man, who was once at the head of the greatest force ever commanded by any of Alexander's successors, and whose variety of fortune is only surpassed by the inconstancy of his conduct; his prosperity being never more lofty than his acts of virtue were splendid, nor his adversity ever more cloudy than his vices were execrable and his follies contemptible. His parallel with Mark Anthony holds in many, but those the worst parts of his character; though his ill-balanced frame of mind deformed the august model of Alexander, with whom he has also been compared, and with whom he might with more propriety be contrasted. In ambition and abilities and the rapid alternations of his glory and disgrace, he strikingly resembled the irregular greatness of Alcibiades: both of them alike excentric in their excellencies and demerits; characters detested or pitied by the good and wise, and even with the vulgar, names of ambiguous renown. Seleucus, as if he had repented of the harsh treatment of his father-in-law, sent his ashes in a golden urn, encircled with a diadem, to his son Antigonus. This dutiful prince sailed from Corinth, the principal seat of his power, and met the funeral escort in the midst of the Ægean sea. The remains of Demetrius were then conveyed to Thessaly, and solemnly interred in the city bearing his name near the mouth of the river Naurus on the Pelasgic gulph; a city faithful to the son of its founder, and which became, under the Macedonian kings of his family, one of the strongest fetters of Greece.'

The

The renown which the descendants of Seleucus attained, and the lustre which the patronage of letters threw around the Ptolemies, have influenced us in the selection of the extracts with which we shall close the present article.

In accounting for Seleucus's march towards Greece, the historian states that

‘ It originated in a far more amiable source than the jealousy of power, or the desire of vengeance. He had now passed his seventy-seventh year ; and since the time that in early youth he crossed the Hellespont with Alexander, had spent fifty-three years in Asia, without once revisiting his native country. At the zenith of his greatness, the breast of this fortunate prince swelled at the thoughts of again surveying the innocent and humble scenes of his youth ; of recognising the happy familiarity of his longed-for national manners ; and of sharing his boundless prospects with his dear hereditary friends. With the patriotism of a Greek, or the warlike pride of a Macedonian, he turned with a sort of virtuous disdain from the wealth and pomp of the East, and looked wishfully towards the coast of Asia Minor, and the countries beyond the *Ægean sea*.

‘ This strong predilection in favour of the West, had been already marked and attested by a very singular transaction. Shortly after his great victory at Ipsus, he married, for his second wife, the young and beautiful Stratonice, whose grandfather, Antigonus, had been his contemporary, his friend, his rival, and finally his victim. This second marriage which gave to Seleucus a son, whose name has escaped notice in history, threatened to prove fatal, but in a very unusual manner, to his blooming heir Antiochus, whose virtues had long been the fondest delight of his father. Amidst all their crimes and cruelties, the Macedonian kings of the East were unusually happy in the interchange of parental affection and filial duty. These sentiments were conspicuous in Antigonus and Demetrius ; in the two Ptolemies ; above all in Seleucus and his son Antiochus ; and, on the part of the elder princes, the instinct of nature appears to have acquired the strength and steadiness of a ruling passion, through the fond prospect of transmitting to a distant posterity their new and powerful monarchies. A year had scarcely elapsed from the marriage of Seleucus and Stratonice, when his son Antiochus was seized with a pining malady, so various in its symptoms, that it was difficult to guess its cause.’

Dr. G. then relates the far-famed story, which has been celebrated as doing so much honour to the penetration and address of the physician, and to the parental affection of the sovereign.

Seleucus having effected the restoration of his son to health, by surrendering to him his wife Stratonice,

‘ He assembled the Macedonians in Antioch and its neighbourhood, and announced to them the important change in the state of his family, and the powerful motives which had produced it. After expatiating on those exploits of his life, in which he had endeavoured

vowed to imitate his immortal master, he concluded by telling them, that being now advanced in life, he wished to alleviate the burthen of too extensive a monarchy. "With whom, then, can I so properly divide its glory and its cares, as with persons the most dear to me and yourselves, Antiochus and Stratonice; whose virtues you well know, and whose mutual affection and benefitting years promise to add many new props to the empire. With a part of you, I purpose to send this son of experienced worth to govern the East, recommending to your observance not the barbarous institutions of vanquished Asia, yet this general rule, that you reverence the commands of your sovereign as the dictates of wisdom and justice." The army listened with respect, and answered with acclamation: hailing Seleucus as the greatest of kings, next to Alexander, and the best of fathers.

'Such is the general account of this transaction, delivered down from antiquity; yet, in the mutilated and meagre narrative, a hint is dropped indicating that Seleucus, in sending his son to the banks of the Tigris, had a more important object in view than that hitherto ascribed to him by historians. A prince whose loftiness of mind was equalled by his sagacity had discerned those local causes above described, which opposed the consolidation of Syria and Assyria into one great monarchy. He saw, on the other hand, as will evidently appear from his conduct, that his favourite province of Syria was well calculated for being joined with the peninsula of Asia, because it might easily be preserved by the same controlling army. While Antiochus and his descendants reigned in the East, it was the purpose of Seleucus to form the countries west of the Euphrates, into an establishment for the younger branch of his family. His design was indeed frustrated by the suddenness of his murder, when there was the least reason to apprehend such an event: but the wisdom of his plan is justified by the experience of all ages. Of the innumerable dynasties bearing sway in Asia, before and after the house of Seleucus, none will be found durable that united the dominions on both sides (of) the Euphrates. It should seem, therefore, that sound policy concurred with other motives above mentioned, in turning his arms westward, and directing them against the odious Lysimachus.'

Having related the particulars of the assassination of Seleucus, Dr. G. thus depicts the character of that monarch:

'Thus perished by treason Seleucus, who, from the condition of a private Macedonian, had risen, through a long course of strenuous exertion, to the sovereignty of a mighty empire. Had he lived a few years longer, his conquests would have devolved to his posterity in two great divisions; the countries between the Euphrates and Indus, over which he had already established the government of Antiochus and Stratonice; and the less extensive, indeed, but equally valuable, possessions between the Euphrates and Danube, which he purposed to retain in his own hands, until he could transfer them with safety to the younger branch of his family. The first division coincides with what is called the Persian empire in modern



modern times ; the second embraces, if we except Egypt, nearly the whole extent of the Turkish dominion. Seleucus aspired, not like his master, to unite and harmonize the whole commercial world ; he relinquished the maritime establishments in the central province of Babylonia, so essential to that great purpose. Yet the designs, as well as actions ascribed to him, confirm his character in history, as an indefatigable and just prince, a firm friend, an affectionate father, an indulgent master ; who gained the love of his eastern subjects by governing them according to their inveterate principles and habits ; and who, among all contemporary sovereigns, was pre-eminent in consistent greatness of conduct, flowing from true royalty of soul.

The portrait of the first Ptolemy, and the establishment of the Alexandrian library, are the immediately succeeding objects of attention :

‘ Next to Seleucus, (continues the historian,) the first Ptolemy of Egypt, who died two years before him, was the most successful and most potent of the Macedonian captains. Ptolemy’s dominions were less extensive, and his renown, in the eastern world, less illustrious ; but his fame with posterity gathered new strength through the more permanent effects of his exertions, and the nearer neighbourhood of the countries in which they were made, to those warlike nations of the west, which were to become the appreciators of merit, and the dispensers of glory. Like Augustus, the founder of the imperial system at Rome, Ptolemy, the founder of the Greek dynasty in Egypt, exhibited, in different periods of his life, a wide diversity of character. While his fortune was insecure, and his power unconsolidated, he was little scrupulous about any means for removing such obstacles as stood in the way of his ambition ; but when the event of the battle of Ipsus had confirmed him in the sovereignty of Egypt, Cyrené, and Cœle Syria, the happiness of his subjects seemed to be the sole object of his pursuit ; and this generous end he attained by the mildness yet vigilance of his government, by his zealous encouragement of domestic industry and foreign intercourse, and by his wise policy in securing for Egypt those appendages, and those only, which were essential to her best interests and solid prosperity. Towards procuring instruments the fittest to second his purposes, the perturbed state of neighbouring countries eminently contributed. The unceasing wars in Lesser Asia, the bloody revolutions in Macedon, and the miserable disorders which infested both the continent and the islands of Greece, suspended, in some measure, the course and necessary labours of man, and threatened totally to ruin all refined arts and all ornamental learning. To fugitives of every description, but especially to proficients in elegant or useful studies, Egypt offered a secure asylum ; and thus, by a singular felicity, did that kingdom which was famed as the mother of arts and sciences, receive back into her hospitable bosom, her full grown, highly improved, but now persecuted, children. With regard to this interesting subject, which forms the characteristic glory of Ptolemy’s reign, it is yet possible to enter into a pretty satisfactory detail ; and to explain by what means  
Alexandria

Alexandria first acquired that pre-eminent station in the world, which it maintained, in matters of science, for eight and, in matters of commerce, for eighteen centuries.

At the head of the men of letters, who sought the protection of Ptolemy, it is fit to place Demetrius Phalereus, the celebrated Athenian archon, because to him very peculiar benefits are ascribed. Having governed Athens with singular ability for the space of ten years, this illustrious statesman had been obliged to retire, first to Bœotian Thebes, (from whence he was soon driven by the increasing troubles of Greece,) and afterwards to Alexandria, in Egypt. Ptolemy received him with the utmost courtesy; and speedily discerning his merit, associated him to his council of legislation; some historians say, even placed him at its head. Demetrius had been the scholar of Theophrastus; and Theophrastus, the scholar of Aristotle: both which philosophers had formed great libraries. At the suggestion of Demetrius, Ptolemy determined to execute the same design on a far larger scale. The books which an extensive intercourse with foreign nations brought into his country, were either purchased or transcribed: his emissaries were busy in the temples, the fairs and markets of Greece and Lesser Asia; and though we know not the accumulation of learning made by himself personally, he founded a library, which, under his last Greek successors, amounted to 700,000 volumes, deposited in two different temples, in different quarters of the city. The word volume, however, conveys, on this occasion, too magnificent an idea; for, in writings of any considerable extent among the ancients, each book, and sometimes each chapter or section, was rolled into a separate volume.

The establishment of the Alexandrian library was accompanied by an institution still more memorable, because then single in its kind. In various cities of Greece, there were temples in honour of the Muses, thence called *Musæia*, where these beneficent daughters of Memory were worshipped by hymns and sacrifices. But the museum raised by Ptolemy, bore a peculiar reference to the intellectual character of those goddesses; and was dedicated chiefly to the advancement of science, to the culture of taste, and to improvement in all those liberal studies, from which the civilized portion of mankind derive their best helps in business, and more than all their enjoyments in leisure. Not priests, but scholars of various denominations were its inhabitants, who, being admitted into it through the approved merit of their labours, subsisted by the King's bounty at common tables, where men of different pursuits, but congenial minds, enjoyed mutual opportunities for enlarging their attainments, or sharpening their faculties. Under the latter Ptolemies the museum, indeed, had a priest for its president, in compliance with the customs of the Egyptians, among whom all offices of dignity were confined, as is well known to the sacerdotal cast. But it appears not that either the founder of the institution, or his immediate successors, respected in this particular the usages of their subjects: and it should seem that the museum is the first establishment in history destined to the promotion of learning and science; independently

independently of state policy and the popular superstition which upheld it.'

Some dark passages in the life of the founder of the Egyptian dynasty do not prepare us for the indications of a playful turn of mind, which the following paragraph records :

'Ptolemy, like his great brother, delighted to relax in literary conversation, and to vary the dull pomp of war and government. From the wisdom of the learned, he doubtless hoped to derive instruction ; but was not less eager to catch amusement from their folly. While he listened to the contentious disputants, Diodorus of Iassus, and Stilpo of Megara, the former was so much puzzled by some captious sophisms of the latter, that he requested time to answer him. The King facetiously gave him by a pun the name of Kronus, (the old deposed deity,) which afterwards adhered to him. A better witticism, because intelligible in all languages, he directed against Sosibius. This critic indulged in the boldest conjectures ; and particularly in the utmost licence of transposition. To punish his temerity, the King desired his stipend to be withheld. The critic complained : Ptolemy affected to disbelieve him : the critic averred his statement to be correct : the King carried him to the treasury ; and desiring to see the list of literary pensioners who had received payment, cut off from the first names where they occurred, the syllables So Si Bi Us ; which syllables, joined in one word, he handed to *Sosibius*, and by thus paying him in his own coin, reproved his unwarrantable freedom with ancient and venerated texts.'

Of the literature of the Ptolemean period, the author, in his account of the subsequent reign of Philadelphus, has given this just character :

'The Ptolemean age of literature, for thus the reign of Philadelphus has sometimes been distinguished, was remarkable not only for the vast number of its productions, but for the wide diversity in their subjects : history, natural and civil ; poetry in all its branches ; moral philosophy and criticism ; geometry, astronomy, music, and medicine. With much ardour for real knowledge, the writers of that age pursued, however, with equal eagerness, all the wildest illusions of the false. Thence, their fabulous history and visionary philosophy ; their fanciful discussions concerning mysterious powers in plants and minerals ; their innumerable treatises on judicial astrology ; their books of travels, and voyages of discovery without end, in which the most monstrous fictions are related ; and thence many huge collections, on the express subject of wonders and prodigies. Various causes concurred to mark the learning of Alexandria with a character, altogether different from that which had distinguished the learning of Athens. The fraternities devoted to arts and sciences, lodged and fed in the museum, are compared to fowls fattened in coops, who gain a superabundance of flesh, at the expence of raciness and flavour. If we may judge, indeed, by the remains which have come down to us, the works

works of the Alexandrians displayed more erudition than taste, and more art than genius. Their compositions of the popular kind were calculated for the gratification of a pompous and effeminate court, of a wealthy and luxurious capital; as eager for amusement as careless of correct information. The multiplicity of pursuits distracted; the number of helps encumbered: and society, too crowded and continuons, is less favourable than solitude to high mental improvement. In consequence of the change to monarchy from republicanism, Grecian eloquence declined, and carried down with it all other kinds of literary composition; sweet sometimes and artful; but greatly degenerate in point of pith and persuasion. The orator now addressed himself to the great and opulent, whose minds he was either to soothe, or at best gently to agitate, not to the people at large, whose passions he was to rouse, whose resolutions he was to controul, and whose decrees he was, at will, either to abrogate or confirm. Thence, neither writers nor speakers assumed the same commanding attitude as formerly; and thinking less highly of their own character, reached not that majesty which overawes, and that vehemence which overwhelms. For history, the sober companion of eloquence, the exploits of Alexander offered the noblest of all subjects. Yet Hegesias and Onesecritus, with many authors of the same stamp, strangely deformed that august theme; the marvellous or puerile in their matter being accompanied by new and harsh turns of expression, by periods broken and transversed, by cadences uncouth and unexpected, by sounds that wounded the ear, and phrases that perplexed the understanding.

[*To be continued.*]

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**ART. XI.** *Letters from Portugal and Spain*; comprising an Account of the Operations of the Armies under their Excellencies Sir Arthur Wellesley and Sir John Moore, from the Landing of the Troops in Mondago Bay to the Battle at Corunna. By Adam Neale, M.D. F.L.S. Physician to the Forces. 4to. pp. 360. and 116. With Plates. 2l. 2s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1809.

**M**EN and manners, and the ever-varying face of Nature, are objects which it must always be gratifying to contemplate, either by our own "wanderings o'er the globe," or by perusing the records of the observations of others. The military profession possesses some advantages, and is liable also to some drawbacks, in visiting a country while it is the scene of war: but more leisure and opportunity will generally be afforded, in such circumstances, to the man who accompanies an army in either a medical or a clerical capacity, than to the actual combatant; and we are glad, therefore, when, as in the present instance, a member of one of these liberal professions undertakes to relate what he has seen and heard. Dr. Neale appears to be a well informed and sensible man

man, and to say truly that he has avoided all 'reflections which partake of party-spirit, and has at all times been actuated by a steady adherence to sacred truth.' It appears that he has already travelled much: he speaks incidentally of his having visited Germany, and having been on duty in South America: his present volume narrates his expedition into Portugal and Spain; and he apologizes in his preface for little defects in his composition, by stating that, in a week after having consented to publish his letters, he was again ordered on foreign service. He may justly say, therefore, that he is one

"*Qui mores hominum multorum vidit et urbes.*"

A few inelegancies of style are undoubtedly discernible, together with an occasional expression which indicates the writer's northern origin; and the almost *perpetual motion* to which he was exposed will certainly not permit his travels to place him in the rank of a profound investigator, nor allow him to boast of having attained the most minute and elaborate knowledge of the countries which he visited. He has, however, traversed a great extent of territory, and can at least report what he saw. His letters, as referring to very interesting events, must not only have been gratifying to his friends, but will be perused with curiosity by the public; and he professes to have directed his principal attention to the positions and operations of the armies in Portugal and Spain, and to occasional descriptions of the face of both countries, accompanied by drawings, traits of character, and remarks on occurrences connected with his own situation.

More than half of this volume is occupied by letters from Portugal during the campaign of 1808, and by a detail of the author's route thence into Spain. The battle of Vimiera, the subsequent disgraceful convention, and even the descriptions of the country and its inhabitants, are now rather familiar to the English reader, and do not interest so much as the particulars which follow, relative to Spain: but we shall catch a few traits, *en passant*.

During the author's leisure at Lisbon, he amused himself with sketching an outline of the professional life and services of Sir Arthur Wellesley; which is rather extraneous to the objects of this volume, but which will not be unacceptable to those whose curiosity has been excited by the enterprizes and the fortunes of this active and able officer.

Dr. N. observes that, long celebrated as the Portuguese have been for the cruelty of their punishments, and the dreadful state of their prisons, he has been 'almost petrified' by the accounts

counts which he obtained in Lisbon, on this subject. Imprisonment in the Bastile, he says, 'must have been a mere joke to that of a Portuguese dungeon.' 'When a person became obnoxious to the government, he suddenly disappeared, and was rarely ever heard of again.'—'Many of the cells communicate, and are on a level, with the Tagus, so that a foot of water, or more, flows in every tide.'—'While we are spending the blood and treasure of England in defence of Portugal, can a Briton endure the idea of upholding such a *government* as this? Yet the fact actually has been that, whenever the power of the French, while they were conquerors, suspended the horrid reign of the inquisition, the succeeding triumphs of the British enabled it to resume its sanguinary sway.

We regret to find the experience and the opinion of Dr. Neale but too much in agreement with the reports of others, in furnishing most unfavourable representations of the people, both in Portugal and Spain, and particularly of the reception which they gave to our countrymen: but occasional exceptions afford a pleasing contrast, as the following anecdote evinces:

'An English officer requested me to visit his wife, a very beautiful woman, to whom he was much and sincerely attached, not only for her own excellent qualities, but as the mother of three beautiful children, all in a state of infancy. On going to his quarters, I found her in the last stage of a remittent fever, a disease which has been very prevalent and fatal among our troops. I need not harass your feelings by depicting one of those scenes, which men of my profession are so often called on to witness. It was the tenth day of the fever. Her soul was on the wing—and by the same evening she had breathed her last.

'Her unfortunate husband, while he felt her loss as the greatest calamity that could have befallen him, strove to stifle his sufferings as he caressed his lisping babes, who demanded when their mamma would return.

'With three helpless infants, in the midst of a foreign country, he was under orders to march with his regiment to Spain. Divided between a sense of public and private duty, what could he do? He was advised to apply to Sir John Moore, for leave to carry his children to England. His wishes could not be complied with. "Never mind, my dear friend," said the generous Portuguese noble, in whose house he is billeted, "cease to grieve, unfortunate Englishman, leave your infants with me: behold my three daughters, they shall each discharge the duties of a mother to one of your infants, and I will be a father to the whole." "So we will, my dear father," cried his daughters. This was too much for Captain \* \* \* \*, and he hastened out of the room'.

A different scene next presents itself:

'Santarem, 31st October 1808,

'At every step, we here meet misery and superstition. This is another of the few festival days in this country, and the streets have been

been covered all the morning with processions of monks and priests. It was truly ludicrous to see these sturdy fellows, all tricked out in tattered surplices, bawling, like Stentors, their hymns to the Virgin; at the same time that they were carefully picking their steps close to the walls of the houses, and when by accident they happened to make a false step a little towards the middle of the street, souse they went at once up to their knees in mud.

Beggary in this country is carried to a most extraordinary height; but there are two distinct classes of mendicants in Portugal: the mendicants of indigence, misery, and starvation, and those of superstition, arrogance, and hypocrisy. They carry on an eternal competition with each other; and so unequal are the weapons with which they fight, and so different their mode of waging war on the public purse, that you daily find, in all the large towns of the kingdom, the beggars of indigence expiring in the very streets, where their opponents are among the best fed and best lodged inhabitants.

The former, though perishing with hunger and cold, seldom prefers a request. He casts his watery eye on the first benevolent countenance he beholds, and in silence waits the result of that appeal. If he receives charity, he is grateful; if not, he raises his eyes to Heaven, and steals away to the dark corner which shelters him from the wind.

But a very different mode is adopted by the latter: collected in a body of five or six persons, they arm themselves with a crucifix, or a wooden image, or a picture, and bearing a few lighted tapers, they saily forth after sun-set, through the streets of the town, raising forth the most discordant notes in praise of St. Francis, or the Madonna; while a few imps, whom they keep in pay, and who are well instructed for the purpose, run before the procession, and with a large stone or huge cudgel thunder at the door of each house till the owner, trembling for his locks and hinges, starts from his bed, curses the disturbers of his repose, and chucking a testoon, or a couple of vintains, out of his window, creeps back to his miserable straw pallet, and wishes from the bottom of his soul that the whole crew of Franciscans, Benedictines, and bare-footed Carmelites were in the lowest depth of purgatory.

In our quotations from Sir R.K. Porter's Travels, (Rev. for November,) we gave some instances of the difficulty of making practice adhere to professions, in the lax conduct of females in these countries among the *religieuses*; and Dr. N. records another example:

'At Guarda, an officer of my acquaintance was accidentally walking among the ruins of a lofty tower which overhangs the town, when he remarked the summit of a singular looking cupola. While he was regarding it, and wondering in his own mind for what purpose it was intended, whether as an observatory or the gallery of a church, a young woman extremely handsome, habited as a nun, appeared at a grated window.

'Having a little knowledge of Portuguese, my friend accosted her. A few compliments passed on the beauty of her complexion,  
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and the sparkling brilliancy of her eyes; and at length he expressed his regret that a being so gifted and formed to adorn and delight society, should be thus immured. She smiled, and told him that it was not quite as he imagined, and if he was desirous of improving an acquaintance, thus fortuitously commenced, she would admit him that night between the hours of twelve and one. He was punctual to the appointment. After waiting some time, a small wicket near the door was opened, and the nun requested he would return again the next night at the same hour, as she had not that evening been able to secure the keys. The following night, at the hour appointed, he returned, and was admitted by the lovely vestal within the holy portals. Early the next morning he left her, regretting that so charming, so amusing a female, should be enclosed within the precincts of a convent.

From Salamanca, the author relates that an Irishman, who had lived 35 years in Spain, observed to a friend;

"You must not trust too much to the Spaniards. I believe they always mean well, but they bluster, and after much bragging, and many big words, like a passionate child, they scold themselves to sleep. This is their character in the common transactions of life. But as to their army, it is a little otherwise. During the last thirty-five years, I have watched its progress, and know it well: when they have had muskets, they generally want cannon; if they have powder, they often are without flints; if they are well fed, then they are naked; if they get shoes, they want a loaf of bread; if the soldiers would fight, the officers are unwilling; and when the Generals wish to have an engagement, the men are sure to run away. In short, my dear countryman, such is the Spanish army, and what, in the name of wonder, can I expect from them now? Only this: that they will leave you to your fate, to get back to your ships as fast as you can; and you may think yourselves very fortunate, if in the way they do not put their knives into your men, whom they already denominate a pack of miserable heretics, and curse for their unasked assistance, in entering their magnificent country."

'Such are the sentiments of Dr. O'Leary. I repeat them as he stated them to my friend M'Leod, and leave you to make your own comments.'

A similar account was given to the author himself:

'In making some arrangements for the supply of the proposed general hospital, I found the Benedictines very civil, and ready to grant every thing in their power to give or procure. On stating to one of them the difficulty I experienced in my dealings with the Junta:—"My good friend," said the crafty old monk, "you English are too good tempered with these countrymen of ours; they will do nothing without compulsion. You ought always, when you make a requisition, to threaten them with a halter, if your demands are not complied with in a given time. Pull out your watch, and put a rope round one of their necks, and I will pledge my existence you will never be disappointed; but, indeed, *mi buen Amigo*, your Eng-



lish Generals are too good-tempered : if they would only adopt the French mode of talking to them, you would not now be in absolute want of bread for your poor soldiers."

" I shall not stop to inquire whether the Benedictine's reasoning be well founded or not ; all that I can assure you is, that their convent here is a very large fine building, containing sixty fellows as fat as Hampshire hogs, while the rest of the inhabitants are meagre, scallow devils, shivering in the cold, and starving on *gaspacho*\*. This difference arises from nothing but the dextrous employment of the same engine—*fear* ! If the French tyranny be the terror of the sabre and carabine, their's is that of hell."

Of the poverty and wretchedness of the people of Spain, the writer gives affecting descriptions. At p. 254. we have a general representation of this kind, and at p. 294. he offers us a picture taken on the spot, *from the life* :

" I succeeded in getting into a wretched cottage, where were several poor women, belonging to the Guards, in great distress, having just heard that their brigade, which they had left at Villa Bob, had been attacked by the enemy, and had suffered great loss. I was happy in assuring them that the rumour was false, and that the cavalry, not the guards, had been engaged. In this hovel the fire was placed in the centre of the room, and, as there was no chimney, the smoke escaped as it could through the thatched roof. The fuel being composed of wet roots of heath, emitted more smoke than either heat or light, and offended our lungs and eyes greatly. By means of entreaties and money, I succeeded in procuring a lamp, and a little oil, from the female of the hovel. She produced it with great unwillingness, saying it could not be bought without sending to Astorga. During the long months of winter, the inhabitants here live with no other light than that of their fire. As to windows in their hovels, they have none. By the light of the lamp, I had an opportunity of contemplating the extraordinary dress and dark countenance of the Mauregato† family. It consisted of a tall, ill-looking woman, and three wretched-looking children, two of whom seemed expiring under hectic fever. They were all filthy to a degree ; their hair matted and uncombed ; their faces, hands, and linen, appeared never to have been washed. Around the woman's neck was a triple row of large beads, and medallions of saints, and from her ears depended two immense hoop rings. The poor creatures did nothing but shiver and sigh over the embers ; every thing around bore the aspect of misery itself. Never was a finer opportunity for a philosopher to contrast the savage with the civilized state. Could Rousseau have risen from the grave, he must have recanted his sophistry, and acknowledged his errors ! The poor Englishwomen

\* A mixture of vinegar, garlick, lamp-oil, and cayenne pepper with boiling water, poured over a dishful of bread.

† A race of people inhabiting the villages round Astorga, so named from Mauregato, an illegitimate son of Alonzo King of Leon in the 8th century.

and their children appeared like a race of celestial Houris, compared with the Mauregato females.'

At Sahagun, Dr. N. visited some French prisoners, and on this occasion he joins with others in stating the superiority of the helmets of the French dragoons, over the Buffoon's fur-cap which has lately been adopted in some of our light-cavalry régiments. 'The French helmet, he says, 'is of the old Roman shape, with a high crest, from which hangs a quantity of black horse-hair. The composition of it is a strong plate of brass; and I have now in my possession one bearing the marks of four sabre cuts, not one of which had penetrated to the scalp beneath. Indeed I have examined all the wounded with attention, and find that while our men are most desperately wounded about the face and head, there is not a single Frenchman cut deeper than the hairy scalp.'—In the same letter, we have a trait of the French character, in high contrast with that of the Spaniard:

*There is here a large Benedictine convent. In one of the refectories are confined about one hundred prisoners. These men are at this moment acting a dancing assembly; one fellow has got a fiddle, another performs the part of master of the ceremonies, the rest are petits maîtres or grisettes; and a gentleman, who has just returned from thence, assures me, that many of the slightly wounded are figuring away in minuets and gavots, as if they were enjoying themselves in the hey-day of the vintage in the midst of France. Wonderful people! What a singular contrast do you form to this race, gliding along with measured steps, muffled in old chocolate-coloured cloaks and montero caps, or standing for hours beneath a dismal piazza, brooding over the national calamities.'*

During the retreat of the British troops, innumerable proofs of the inhospitality and indifference of the Spaniards towards them occurred, with melancholy consequences to our poor fellows. At Ponte del Orbigo, near Astorga, Dr. Neale was endeavouring on the morning of December 28 to convey onwards the sick and wounded, in covered waggons, when he discovered that those wretched animals, the Spaniards, to whom the waggons belonged, had absconded in the night, taking with them all the mules and harness, and leaving the waggons to their fate.'

In the first letter from Corunna, the march from Lugo is described as dreadful in its effects on the troops, from the severity of the weather, and their previous exhaustion; and the detail closes with some stanzas excited by the dismal scene, which (composed, too, under such circumstances,) are creditable to the writer's talents;

' On the morning of the 9th, amid a storm of wind, sleet, and rain, more severe than I can recollect ever to have experienced, we proceeded to Guittirez. Our poor soldiers, drenched to the skin, and covered with mud, lengthened out their line of march. As the cold drops beat against me, impelled by the gusts of a south-west wind, I felt as if scalding drops of led pelted my face.' It was with the greatest difficulty I could keep my seat on horseback. Every human being had fled, "the fenceless villages were all forsaken." Our soldiers absolutely lay down and died in the ditcher without a struggle. Few women were now to be seen, the greater part had perished or fallen behind between Villa Franca and Lugo.

' At Guittirez I halted for half an hour in the rain, but was so stiff, that, on attempting to remount, I fell down, and could with difficulty get on my legs. Here the troops had some salt beef and rum issued. Not having any fires to cook the beef, much of it was thrown away: but the rum was drunk greedily, and the powers of their stomachs being almost-gone, I saw many fall down, after drinking it, in a comatose state. Death, I have no doubt, followed in an hour or two.

' On the morning of the 10th I reached Betanzos, completely worn out with fatigue of every kind. The march from Guittirez proved more fatal to our troops than all the former. Hundreds of men and officers came into Betanzos barefooted, their feet swelled and frost-bitten and the flesh torn and bleeding by the granite and quartz pebbles. The languid stragglers came up constantly during the day. Many of these, five hundred it is said, had been left at the other side of the Minho, when the bridge was blown up. Collecting in a body by the side of the river, they drew up in line, and placing themselves under the command of a serjeant, saluted the advance of the French with a loud cheer and three volleys, when they were forced to surrender.

' Ruminating as I went along on the distressing scenes to which I have been a witness, I fancied the feelings which were likely to arise in the breasts of many of these brave unfortunate men. With a pencil I caught the ideas:

' The shadows of night on the mountains fell fast,  
The huge chesnuts shook to the hoarse-sounding blast;  
Mid rocks the swollen torrents were dashing around,  
While the glens and dark caverns re-echo'd each sound.  
The trooper benighted, still urg'd on his way,  
And deplored the deep roads and the short wint'ry day;  
Yet still as the sleet fell his dark locks among  
He sooth'd his poor charger, and sighed while he sung:

" Ill-fated the day when to succour proud Spain,  
The transports of Britain set sail o'er the main;  
More luckless the hour when approaching its strand,  
The cannon's loud roar gave the signal to land.  
Regardless of danger we dash'd through the wave,  
And at length touched that soil which we paused to save;

But more fleet than the hind were their legions in flight,  
And extinct was the flame which we came to excite.

" Betray'd by the slaves whom we strove to set free,  
Indignant we trace back our steps to the sea ;  
And sinking beneath ev'ry horror of war,  
Oft seek the lone taper that glimmers afar :  
Pale, shiv'ring, and hungry, we knock at the door,  
And some food, or a lodging, perhaps we implore ;  
No ! dead are their bosoms to pity's soft tie,  
And the poor houseless trooper must lie down and die !

" Now harsh be your lot, ye false Patriots of Spain,  
Long and much may ye suffer beneath the French chain ;  
May your children, as conscripts from home torn away,  
Starve, and perish like us, to misfortunes a prey ;  
Then some pangs of regret your stern bosoms may smite,  
And the tears of remorse be your portion by night."

" He ceas'd.—Far more loud, and more keen blew the blast,  
The rain fell in torrents, as onward he past :  
Despairing and reckless !—oft through the grim night  
The ghosts of his comrades appear'd to his sight.  
He rode—but, alas ! ere the dawning of morn,  
Cold and lifeless the trooper lay under a thorn !—"

Towards the conclusion, (pp. 322. and 330.) a fair statement of the different opinions respecting this melancholy retreat is made by the author ; who modestly refrains from giving any positive opinion of his own, as not being a military man. It may be added that even those military men, whose complaints are here related, were not acquainted with all the circumstances which influenced the movements of the commander in chief ; and we must again refer to Mr. Moore's Narrative, compiled from Sir John's papers, as supplying the only adequate information on which a fair judgment can be formed. The difficulties of his situation, however, were sufficiently apparent to all the army. Even from Salamanca, the author thus writes :

" Every thing has fallen out as disastrous and perplexing as possible for Sir John Moore, who appears to be one of the best of men, and is greatly esteemed and respected by the army. There is scarcely an officer of any feeling who does not sympathize with him in the very difficult and critical situation in which he is placed. The unpleasant circumstances attending his return from Sweden, his personal quarrel with Lord C\*\*\*, immediately before he sailed for Portugal (a circumstance notorious here, and much talked of), the sensibility of his character, his high sense of honour, and above all, the glow of patriotism which warms his breast and actuates his whole public conduct, make Sir John an object of the liveliest interest

rest to all around him. No British General, perhaps, was ever placed in a more arduous and embarrassing situation.'

In the conclusion, too, he observes :

' I think that Sir John Moore was not a little unlucky, in having to deal first with a madman in Sweden, and then with a set of irresolute politicians and fanatics in Spain. It was next to impossible that he could escape from the dilemma in which he was placed, without incurring, from one party or other, a certain degree of obloquy. He was placed in a situation the most awfully responsible that any British General has yet occupied. Commanding a divided force, in the midst of a country to which himself and his whole army were, I may say, entire strangers \*—in an open plain, surrounded by an enemy amply provided with cavalry—opposed to that man too, who, from his superior fortune and military genius, seems destined and fitted to direct all the nations of the Continent, it was next to impossible that he could gratify the sanguine expectations of his country.

' He had, therefore, but a choice of difficulties. Having made his election, he had to encounter the whole power of the enemy brought against him from various points. He was aware of the promise which Napoleon had made to the Parisians, that "he would present to them the remains of the gaily drest English." He was therefore justified in expecting that every possible exertion would be used by that wonderful man, to fulfil his promise; in attempting which, however, he has fortunately failed.

' The question then is narrowed to this point: was it necessary for our Commander-in-Chief to hurry his army by such severe forced marches, through a country, perhaps the strongest in Europe. If this necessity be proved, the character of Sir John Moore, distinguished as it already is for manly sense, patriotism, and an uncommon share of military knowledge, will be further ennobled by the recollection, that having been destined to fill the most arduous of all stations, he fell in the arms of victory, after conducting a most difficult retreat, pursued by the conqueror of Europe, and the whole élite of the French army.'

An appendix of 116 pages of close print affords an ample supply of official documents connected with the campaign; and the work is illustrated by a map, and 12 views from drawings by the author.

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\* \* During our retreat, should it not have been known that it was impossible for the enemy to get between us and the sea by any lateral road on our left, and that before he could come round our right, he must have beaten and dispersed Generals Crawford's and Alten's brigade, and the Marquis de la Romana's army? Sir John Moore, it is presumed, would not have retreated so rapidly through the strongest country in Europe, had it not been from a defect of knowledge such as that of which I speak.'

ART. XII. *Poggii Bracciolini Florentini Dialogus, An Seni sit Uxor dicenda? Circa An. 1435. conscriptus, nunc Primum Typis Manda- tus, et Publici Juris factus. Edente Gulielmo Shepherd. Liverpoolæ. 4to. pp. 30. 4s. Cadell and Davies.*

THE author of the Life of Poggio has here presented us with a Latin Dialogue, never before printed, in which his hero discusses, according to the Ciceronian manner, the question of marriage in old age. It must doubtless have been a matter of great joy and triumph to the biographer of that celebrated Italian, to discover in the Royal Library at Paris this hitherto concealed treasure of his favourite writer's composition; and we cannot wonder that he dedicates his edition of it, with all the warmth of literary friendship, to his accomplished fellow-labourer, Mr. Roscoe; nor that he acknowledges with pride the encouragement and advice of Dr. Parr, which incited him to the present publication.

Mr. Shepherd tells us that, with the countenance of this illustrious scholar, he has silently corrected several passages in the manuscript of this dialogue; and that, even contrary to that scholar's suggestion of similar inelegancies being to be found in other writings of Poggio, he has in one instance had recourse to conjecture, in order to reduce the text to the standard of pure Latinity. He was, however, encouraged to this boldness (such is the consequence which editors of even the writers after the restoration of letters attach to altering a single passage of their original,) by the authority of a manuscript of Poggio, lent by Mr. S.'s friend, and the friend of all literary men, Mr. Johnes; from which manuscript he was enabled to correct many erroneous passages in the printed collection of Poggio's works.

With this short but sufficient preparation, Mr. Shepherd introduces us to the dialogue of Poggio: a discourse which is worthy of its author, in the ingenuity of argument and the elegance of style which are demonstrated throughout its few pages.—The substance of the conversation may be expressed very briefly.—Poggio, now in his fifty-fifth year, and lately married to a young wife, entertains at dinner two young friends, the one married, and the other a bachelor. The latter enters into a philippic against wedlock in old age; observing that, if the old man marries a young virgin, it is almost certain that their appetites, tastes, and habits will be wholly different, and that the levity of the one will be a constant cause of quarrel to the sedateness of the other: but that, if he marries a young widow, besides those charming constituents of a happy life, he will have the inexpressible addition of being for ever reminded (like Mr. Towhouse, in

Joseph

Joseph Andrews,) of the virtues of her dear deceased husband, (whose heart she probably broke;)—and lastly, if the old man marries an old woman, it will be one weak stick leaning on another, and, in fact, nothing but an accumulation of diseases, which, singly, would be enough to overwhelm each poor sufferer with distress. The folly of learned men in marrying is also particularly asserted; and, although Poggio is complimented on his excellent choice of a wife, it is argued that the good fortune of an individual should not be considered as a guide for the conduct of the multitude; who would act more wisely by continuing in certain safety, than by seeking a dangerous and doubtful advantage.

The young married man replies, instead of Poggio, who might have been suspected of prejudice in such a question. The arguments of this advocate for matrimony, although on the whole they are more forcible than those of his opponents, (as might be expected from the superiority of his side of the general question,) have some indefensible points; and they are not urged with that liveliness, perhaps, which is usually the concomitant of the attack rather than of the defence. For instance;—the Geraogamist (or advocate for marriage in old age) gravely begins by stating the necessity of propagating the species; unmindful of those times,

“ ‘Ere one to one was cursedly confin’d,”

and of the countless population of many kingdoms,

“ In early days ‘ere Priestcraft did begin;”

and continues by mentioning Socrates as his first instance of a happy learned man!—forgetful of the darling Xantippe, who must have contributed so largely to the domestic comforts of the moral philosopher. He talks too of the certainty of a wife’s obedience;—of the happiness of a young virgin in being instructed by an experienced husband;—and of the still greater happiness of a widow, in comparing the prudence and steadiness of her present lord with the extravagance and inconstancy of her former partner. His additional remarks concerning the wiser plan of educating children which is likely to be adopted by the old, and the more prosperous management of domestic concerns, are sensible enough: but when he urges, in answer to an objection of his adversary, that the circumstance of the old parent not living to see his family grown up in the world would be an advantage, because it might save him from witnessing the rebellious disposition and consequent misery of his children, this is an argument of such utter selfishness as not to deserve consideration. His general point of defence, also, (in reply to the statement that age does

not always bring improvement, and that the old are often as foolish as the young,) where he disclaims all regard to fools in this question, and speaks only to the wise, may be converted against himself; since, if the young are wise, they cannot also be imprudent; and consequently it must be as safe (and probably will be much pleasanter) for a young widow or a young virgin to marry a young husband as to espouse an old one.—With regard to the advantage of inhaling pure breath, (which forcibly reminds us of our friend *Hermippus Redivivus*,) we must also contend that it is an advantage of so purely selfish a nature as not to merit any remark but ridicule.

On the whole, as a defence of matrimony, (which, indeed, little wants such a defence,) this may be considered as a well intended dialogue: but, as a support of the author's own example and fond opinion of marrying in old age, it wants the variety, the poignancy, and the justice of the arguments of the bachelor in favour of celibacy, or, at all events, of marrying in youth.—The publication, by its correctness, elegance, and general interest to scholars, not only does honour to the taste of Mr. Shepherd, but adds another sprig to that literary chaplet, which has crowned the heads of several classical inhabitants of the mercantile town of Liverpool.

*"Anglica sic Latias generant commercia lauros,  
Miranturque novas frondes, et non sua poma."*

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For FEBRUARY, 1810.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 13. *Il Poeta di Teatro, Romanzo poetico, in sesta rima, del Dr. Filippo Pananti.* 12mo. 2 Vols. Boards. Dulau and Co. 1809.

THIS poet begins with assigning an office to the Muses for which we never yet heard of their being duly qualified: he makes them the wet-nurses of music and poetry! He seems very jealous of the fine dinners and fine clothes which musicians enjoy, and we have somewhat too much of this jealousy and of private pique in the work: though in his zeal to praise all who have not injured him, he enumerates a motley groupe of living authors, among whom *Sastres* and *Boschetti* are incircled in the same wreath with *Pignotti* and *Polidori*; and though the one party may not be "aware of the honour," the others will certainly be "sensible of the disgrace" attendant on such an assemblage. Dr. Pananti has also introduced such numerous idiomatic and proverbial expressions, that many of the stanzas have a note to each line, to explain its meaning, and to remedy the silence of the dictionaries.

The



The various merits of this poem, however, cannot be as briefly enumerated as its defects: it displays much wit and originality of humour; the satirical parts are amusing without being malevolent; and the serious passages possess a strength of imagery, and a truth of feeling, which convince us that the talents of the author would be as conspicuous in any other poetical undertaking as they are in this very entertaining production.

Art. 14. *Gastronomy, or the Bon-Vivant's Guide. A Poem in Four Cantos. Translated from the French of J. Berchoux. 4to. 5s. Booth. 1810.*

We can recommend this poem to our readers as a very amusing hour's-companion: it is translated with spirit and originality; and it is the production of a playful imagination united with harmless wit, convivial talents, science, and knowledge.

Art. 15. *The Village Sunday. A Poem, Moral and Descriptive. In the Manner of Spenser. 4to. 1s. 6d. Setchel and Son.*

As the author of this poem seems rather to apologize for than to vindicate the style in which it is written, we will not now discuss the propriety of imitating exploded phraseology; and we shall merely observe that he has made his language sufficiently quaint to remind us of Spenser, and to gratify his own predilection in favour of that bard, without having introduced any obscurity which can render the sense ambiguous or the reader impatient. The poem contains an artless and pleasing description of the Village-Sabbath, and concludes with a touching address to Village-Pastors. We have derived satisfaction from the perusal of it, and we think that no one can take it up without being interested in the subject and pleased with the execution.

Art. 16. *Saffo Dramma Lirico in tre Atti sul modello Toscano dall' Inglese di Guglielmo Mason, Autore dell' Elfrida e del Carattace Tradotto da T. J. Mathias. Crown 8vo. pp. 128. 6s. Boards. Becket and Porter. 1809.*

Few of our poetical readers, we presume, are unacquainted with the late Mr. Mason's imitations of the ancient drama; and few Italian scholars in this country can be strangers to Mr. Mathias's uncommon proficiency and attainments in their favourite language. At any rate, it would be superfluous to repeat our approbation either of Mr. Mason's merits as a poet, or of Mr. Mathias's intimacy with the idioms and niceties of the Italian tongue.

The general execution of the present translation is intitled to no ordinary commendation; and we really think that several of the passages would reflect no discredit on Metastasio himself. The whole is subjected to a fair, but rigid test; the original being reprinted with the version.

As a sample of the translator's manner, we quote, at random, the first scene of the second Act,

" A grove near the house of Agenor.

" AGENOR, DORIS, LYCIDAS.

" *Ag.* Hence from my sight ! or with repentant speed  
Restore thy heart to Lycidas.

*Dor.* My hand,  
( 'Tis all I can ) I yield him.

*Ag.* See, the swain  
With virtuous pride disclaims it !

*Lyc.* Not from pride,  
But grief, Agenor, I decline a gift  
That Doris yields so coldly.

*Dor.* Take it, youth,  
And know, tho' Phaon claims my adoration,  
He ne'er shall be thy rival. If his charms  
Surpass (as sure they do) whate'er is human,  
May I not pay to him that tribute chaste,  
We give to bright Apollo ?

*Lyc.* But his heart,  
Wayward and false—his bold licentious tongue—  
Does that bespeak divinity ?

*Ag.* If so,  
'Tis such as frights us in the satyr troop  
That follow Faunus, or the Cyclops rude,  
Which oft, at eve, from Etna's burning womb  
Are seen to climb, and cool them on yon cliff,  
Carolling strains uncouth.

*Lyc.* Or boldly daring,  
Like ruthless Polypheme, to lure the faith  
Of one more heav'nly fair than Galatea  
From one, as true as Acis.

*Dor.* Hapless youth !  
Much do I pity thee and much myself ;  
Yet all I can, in offering here my hand,  
I give thee. Ah ! my father, check thy frowns,

*Ag.* Away ! my soul thy perfidy disowns.

" Fly to the Lesbian traitor, fly !  
Forsake the mansion of thy sire :  
From fair Sicilia's plains retire,  
And take an exile's destiny.  
The dower of penury and pine,  
Giv'n by a father's curse be thine !  
[ *Agenor and Doris exeunt different ways.* ]"

" Boschetto vicino alla casa d'Agenore.

" AGENORE, DORI, LICIDA.

" *Ag.* Fuggi da me ; o a Licida pentito  
Torni il tuo cor.

*Dori.* Gli offro la man, ma'l cuore  
Non posso, non è mio.

*Ag.* Dua.

- Ag.* Dunque non vedi?  
Il giovinetto, altero al ma giusto  
Fiero ricusa il don.
- Lic.* Non sento orgoglio,  
Ma di Dori l'insolita freddezza.
- Dori.* T'offro la mano; prendila sicuro:  
Chè se Faone adoro, il tuo rivale  
Ei non sarà: ma i suoi vezzi, i suoi sguardi,  
Son sovrumani; e devo,  
Come al raggianti Febo, il mio tributo  
Render casta e divota.
- Lic.* Ma il suo core—  
La lingua di menzogne sì macchiata—  
Ciò ti palesa un Dio?
- Ag.* Se un nume è questo,  
Anche son numi i Satiri lascivi,  
I seguaci di Faone, e i rozzi al crine  
Rabbuffati Ciclopi,  
Allor che canta lungo il Mongibello  
Lo sdrajato drappello.
- Lic.* E' l tuo Faone,  
Di Polifemo stesso più spietato,  
Viene a ingannar la fede  
D'un'altra Galatea, ma ancor più bella,  
E un altro, d'Acì più fedel, pastore  
Render vie più meschino.
- Dori.* Oh sventurato!  
Dite pietà, di me pietade io sento;  
E quanto i' posso, offrendoti la mano,  
Tutto ti dono. Amato genitore,  
Rasserena la fronte.
- Ag.* Sprezza il mio cor queste tue offese ed onte.  
Lungi, lungi dal mio nido,  
Fuggi via da questo lido  
All' infido traditor.  
Poverella, sbandeggiata,  
Vivi sola, abbandonata  
Al tuo fier rimorso in preda,  
Al paterno mio furor.

*Aganore e Dori partono.*

Viewed merely as a translation, the version of Mr. Mathias, with all its appropriation of idiom and elegance, is sometimes faulty in point of fidelity; an idea being occasionally added, but more frequently suppressed. Thus, in the very outset of the preliminary scene, the expression, "on the wing of dutious zeal I meet thee," is very imperfectly rendered, '*Ad incontrarti in vengo.*'

The concluding line of the first Scene of the first Act,

*'Vago più che non parli,'*

is gratuitous on the part of the translator.

The

The lines,

“ Daughter, the vow is made;  
Jove, when he swears by sable Stryx, not binds  
His oath more firmly,”

are coolly condensed into

‘ *Di nuovo il giuro.*’

The amount of

“ Away—discard all duty—marry Phaon—  
Yet, in the hour of transport, Doris, know  
A father’s death shall turn thy bliss to woe.”

is but partially represented by

‘ *Ingrata, fuggi; e, ad onta del tuo padre  
E del dover, ritrosa,  
Sia d’ indegno Faon Dori la sposa;*’

and the same remark applies to the concluding lines of the same scene.

The verse

“ ’Tis duty, Phaon, bids me fly  
The heav’n of smiles, that decks thy face,  
And every more than mortal grace,  
That triumphs in thy eye,”

is scantily rendered by

‘ *Se fuggo i dolci dardi  
De’ tuoi vezzeosi sguardi,  
Sol forza è del dover.*’

We were curious to observe how Mr. Mathias had converted the following pretty little air into suitable Italian:

“ From fair to fair, in every isle  
That lifts its forests from the wave,  
I’ll rove, their beauties to inslave;  
The coyly grave,  
The freely gay,  
Shall each be victims to my smile:  
I’ll woo them all, perplex, beguile,  
Possess, and fling the toys away,” &c.

The corresponding lines in the copy are sufficiently harmonious, but very faintly reflect the original:

‘ *Già troppo baldanzose  
Vantar le donne impero;  
Vada Faone altero  
Le imbelli a dominar.  
E sventurati amanti  
Verran con lieto core  
Di Lesto il vincitore  
Festosi a celebrar.*’

In like manner, some of the fine images introduced into the conclusion of the 4th Scene of the second Act are omitted in the translation, as will be obvious from a comparison of the passages:

“The rat’ling chain, the prison’s gloom,  
Where adders hiss, and scorpions sting,  
Villain, shall be thy dismal doom!  
There famine, on her raven wing,  
Shall hover o’er thy fainting head;  
Till nature, shrinking at the sight,  
Quenches the lamp of life and light,  
And gives thee to the perjurd dead.”

*‘Tra catene in carcer nero  
Senza speme prigioniero,  
Proverai la morte ognar:  
Finchè là, di fame vinto,  
Giacerà quel corpo estinto  
Tra’ spersiguri traditor.’*

In other respects, the accomplished translator has performed his task with singular ability and success.

This little volume is printed on the same paper and type with *Componimenti Lirici*, and other interesting pieces, edited by Mr. Mathias, which we have already announced.

Art. 17. *Monody on the Death of Sir John Moore.* By M. G. Lewis. Recited at Drury-Lane Theatre by Mrs. Powell, prohibited on the third Night by the Lord Chamberlain, and quoted by Mr. Tierney in the House of Commons. 4to. 1s. 6d. Longman and Co.

The merit of Sir John Moore does not seem to have been duly appreciated and sufficiently honoured. He displayed military talents which extorted praise from the foe, and he died in the arms of victory, accomplishing a safe retreat from a country in which he found no co-operation, and before an enemy who was vastly superior to him in numbers. The British Muse owed such a man the sad tribute of a Monody, and its recitation must have been grateful to the feelings of a British audience. Why it was *prohibited*, we are not informed: but, as Mr. Percival in the House of Commons denied any knowledge of the prohibition, can we suppose that this measure originated in any political reason? Did family delicacy make interest with the Lord Chamberlain to exert his authority on the occasion? Did the relatives of the departed hero dislike that his fame should be puffed by theatrical recitation? This is not intimated. Were the following lines considered as objectionable?

‘And could’st thou, Moore, ere fled thy soul away,  
Doubt, Britain to thy worth would honours pay \*?  
And could he value trophies raised by art,  
Whose fame must live stamped on his country’s heart?

‘\* Alluding to his being said to have expressed a dying wish, that his country would bestow some mark of approbation on his memory.’

Oh! in yon martial bands, with gashes seamed,  
 Saved by thy prudence, with thy blood redeemed,  
 Behold a monument of prouder praise,  
 Than head can fancy, or than hand can raise.  
 Each anxious mother and each tender wife,  
 Who trembled for a son's or husband's life,  
 Shall bless thy name, while to her breast she strains  
 Her warrior, rescued from yon dangerous plains,  
 Rescued from death, or (worse than death) from chains. }  
 'Twas thine to bid the mourners cease to mourn;  
 Thine was the balm, which healed their bosoms torn;  
 In grateful tears thy noblest triumph know,  
 'Tis more than kings or senates can bestow.'

We shall not decide this point. It will be enough for us to say of this little Monody that some of the lines are nervous, but that others are more unfinished than Mr. Lewis ought to have left them.

Art. 18. *The Knight of Walcheren*: a Hudibrastic Poem, written in Commemoration of the Expedition to the Scheldt. 8vo. 12. Jones.

The witty tribe of poets have the happy knack of eliciting a laugh out of our misfortunes, and of finding matter for ridicule in circumstances which make the nation at large look grave. Here is a case in point. Even the Expedition to the Scheldt has furnished the satirist with a topic; and the "passing worth" of Sir William Curtis, who is here 'the Knight of Walcheren', is sung in Hudibrastic verse, with more humour than the Knight may relish, though it may not be unacceptable to his *good-natured friends*. Dr. Herring himself was never in a more sorry *pickle* than this valorous knight and his squire Davy are represented to have been, on their approach to the field of glory. Their courage or their fear operates in a manner the most ludicrous: but the disaster, according to the city proverb, is regarded as a symptom of *good luck*.

*Speedy and soon*, after their landing, they engage in a night-encounter: but, when Aurora throws light on the heroic deed, it appears that they had slain a *Turk*, and not a Batavian or Gallic enemy. For this achievement, the poet proposes suitable honors, not without a glance at a recent *victory* in the peninsula. The conclusion may serve for a specimen:

' Now having clear'd th' embattled field,  
 And all my purposes reveal'd,  
 Before I finally conclude,  
 One more remark I shall intrude;  
 Which is,—that Talavera's Lord  
 No more his boasted deeds record;  
 For, 'tis acknowledg'd truly glorious,  
 And more decisively victorious,  
 To have the spoils of war collected  
 Than leave the ~~wounded unprotected!~~

Our Hero's claim to vict'ry's clear,  
 'Tis *he*, then, should be made a Peer;  
 And, well deserving Honor's crown,  
 Be styl'd LORD VISCOUNT TURTLETON !!!  
 Thus would true merit be rewarded,  
 And worth and valor be recorded.—  
 Then, to such end, let all combine,  
 And in this exclamation join,  
 While echo shall repeat the strain—  
 “ Long live the KNIGHT OF WALCHEREN !!! ”

The wit is a little *à la mode de Swift*; and the lines are truly Hudibrastic.

## BOTANY.

Art. 19. *A Catalogue of Plants growing in the Vicinity of Berwick upon Tweed*, by John V. Thompson, Esq. Surgeon to His Majesty's 37th Regiment, A. L. S. 8vo. pp. 150. Boards. White.

This local *Flora* exhibits a list of 564 species and varieties of plants which are indigenous to the district specified in the title page; besides several others that are reported in the notes, on the authority of Parsons, Dodd, Wynch, &c. but the existence of some of which, in their alleged habitations, is now more doubtful. Indeed, the casual disappearance of some plants from particular spots is no very rare occurrence, especially when sandy shores are to be taken into the account; and we can easily believe that the indications of Ray and Parsons were correct at the periods at which they were registered.

Among some of the rarer species in this *Border-Anthology*, we observe *Veronica scutellata*, *Salvia pratensis*, *Cornus Suecica*, *Verbascum thapsus*, *Atropabella downa*, *Epilobium Alpinum*, *Sedum reflexum*, *Thalictrum flavum*, *Arabis thaliana*, *Picris echioides*, *Artemisia maritima*, *Senecio tenuifolius*, *Anthemis arvensis*, *Humulus lupulus*, *Cyathea fragilis*, *Bartramia crispa*, *B. ulphyphylla*, &c.—It is worthy of remark that *Lavatera arborea*, which is here quoted, on the authority of Sibbald, as an inhabitant of the Bass, still continues to flourish on that insulated rock, though exposed to all the rude and chilling visitations of the German ocean; while it seems to have taken its departure from the more sheltered situation of Inch Garvie, where the frith of Edinburgh is contracted to two English miles.

Mr. Thompson's list of phænogamous plants would admit of extension; and he appears to be perfectly aware of his inadequate returns of the cryptogamous families. We could have wished, also, that he had more accurately defined the topographical line of his survey, and noted his habitations, in many instances, with more scrupulous minuteness; so that a stranger, with this guide in his hand, might be directed to the precise spot which is meant to be indicated. Mr. T.'s unassuming performance is, nevertheless, intitled to very considerable commendation; and in conjunction with some analogous publications which we have already reported, it will probably contribute to form the ground-work of more enlarged and detailed schemes, by which the botany of our island may, at last, be fully and commodiously

elucidated. The multiplication of such provincial catalogues is, in the mean time, highly deserving of encouragement, since they save much trouble in searching for the vegetable products of particular portions of country.

Mr. Thompson's preface contains some pertinent directions for the formation of an herbal, or *hortus siccus*; and he has annexed references to his own collection of dried specimens, in consequence of his liberal intention of depositing it in the shop of Mr. Reid, stationer in Bridge-street, Berwick, for the accommodation of such ladies and gentlemen as may be desirous of consulting it. Our botanical readers will be pleased to hear that his researches have been aided and patronized by Lord Seaforth, W. Percival Pickford Esq., the learned president of the Linnæan Society, Mr. Sowerby, Mr. Dickson, and other distinguished votaries of Flora.

**Art. 20.** *The British Flora, or a Systematic Arrangement of British Plants.* By John Hull, M. D. of the Royal College of Physicians of London; Physician to the Lying-in Hospital in Manchester, &c. The Second Edition, in two Volumes. Vol. I. *Monandria-Polygamia*. 8vo. pp. 332. 9s. Boards. Bickerstaff.

In the xxxist volume (p. 201.) of our New Series, we reported the first edition of this compendious and useful Flora; and the work is now farther recommended to our favourable notice by various additions and improvements. The author has introduced all the plants which he knows to have been discovered in our island, since his last publication; and he has arranged the genera, in the body of the work, as nearly as circumstances would permit, by their natural affinities, subjoining references to his *Elements of Botany*\*, the synonyms of *Jussieu*, and the essential characters. Nineteen new genera are admitted in their proper places; while to the species are added the specific characters, select synonyms, the English name, the general habitation, the duration, season of flowering, a reference to some figure or to a specimen from some herbarium, occasional distinctive marks, and all the varieties which appear to be of sufficient importance to merit insertion.—The generic and specific names have all been accented.

Dr. Hull adds that he 'wishes to defer the publication of the second volume, till Willdenow's edition of the *Species Plantarum*, Roth's *Tentamen Floræ Germanicæ*, and Smith's *Flora Britannica* be completed, that he may be enabled to avail himself of these three important works, and give references to them.'

We cannot but regard the quantity of accurate and important matter which Dr. H. has thus continued to epitomize, as a very desirable accommodation to the practical botanists of Great Britain; and we must applaud his reasons for suspending the completion of his performance.

**Art. 21.** *The English Botanist's Pocket Companion: containing the essential generic Characters of every British Plant, arranged agreeably to the Linnæan System; together with a short and easy Introduction to the Study of Botany, and an Explanation of the*

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\* See M. Rev. N. S. Vol. xxxiii. p. 380.



Principles upon which the Classification of the Sexual System is founded. By James Dede. 12mo. pp. 156. 4s. Boards. Hatchard. 1809.

This is a convenient introduction to a knowledge of the classes and genera of the Linnéan arrangement, and in course particularly adapted to beginners; who should make themselves familiar with these two preliminary stages, before they proceed farther in their botanical tour. Mr. Dede has carefully inserted the English names: but some of the terms of his vocabulary are provincial and vulgar; and his style, on the whole, is more perspicuous than correct or elegant.

**Art. 22. *Practical Botany*.** Being a new Illustration of the Genera of Plants, containing, I. Tables to discriminate the Genera; II. Ditto with the essential generic Characters; III. Origin of the Latin and English Names of each Genus; IV. All the national Characters; V. The secondary Characters; VI. With a Figure, and Dissection of each Genus. The whole arranged after the reformed Sexual System. Vol. I. By Robert John Thornton, M. D. Member of Trinity College, Cambridge; one of the Council of the London Medical Society; Honorary Member of the Medical and Physical Societies of Guy's Hospital and of Bartholomew's Hospital; Member of several learned Societies and Academies; Lecturer on Medical Botany at the United Hospital of Guy and St. Thomas; late Physician to the Mary-le-bone General Dispensary; Author of a new Translation of the Sexual System; the Philosophy of Botany; the Philosophy of Medicinæ; the Philosophy of Politics; Grammar of Botany; History of Medical Plants, &c. 8vo. pp. 90. Plates 85. 1l. 10s. Boards. Symonds, White, &c.

The increasing demand for elementary treatises on botany sufficiently bespeaks the growing taste for that delightful science. In order that the rich and the poor may resort to the temple of Flora, guides of every denomination are provided: but to the darlings of fortune in this happy island, who are in quest of a precious conductor to the aforesaid temple, we beg leave to recommend the goodly offices of Dr. Robert John Thornton, whose name is already associated with all that is fair and enchanting in description and embellishment!

Of the contents of his present publication, already numerically arrayed in the title, we have only to say that they comprize the generic expositions of three classes of British plants; and, when we add that the plates and their accompanying explanations are well calculated to facilitate the efforts of the botanical tyro, we conceive that we have stated the prominent merit of the performance. We are not disposed to lay much stress on the reduction of the Linnéan classes, because the enlarged and the contracted schemes possess their respective advantages and disadvantages, which are so nearly equipoised that it appears to us a matter of indifference which is preferred; provided that neither be regarded as a natural arrangement, but merely as an instrument of commodious reference.

The author distinctly wishes it to be understood, that the reader of *Practical Botany* should be previously initiated in his *Philosophy of Botany*, or its abridgment, intitled the *Grammar of Botany*; or in his *New Illustration of the Sexual System*. The last is advertised as the *finest work in the world*, and yet costs only thirty pounds in boards!—The Doctor moreover reminds each subscriber to the *Practical Botany*, that he should take each volume as it issues from the press; and, *pour encourager les autres*, he announces the eventual birth of a *some* once in three months:—‘Also, just published, numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6, Supplement to the *Philosophy of Botany*; price half-a-guinea each number. One or two numbers to be continued monthly, for every exertion will be used also to finish this *national work* for the subscribers.’—*Vive donc la Botanique!*

Dr. Thornton’s dedication of this volume to Dr. Smith, president of the Linnæan society, has one of the faults which are common to addresses of this kind. It commences by observing that the ‘delicate mind’ of the person addressed would reject all praise, and then proceeds in the highest strains of eulogy! We are, however, by no means disposed to add that it partakes of *other* faults which are also not unfrequent in dedications, viz. that the professions are insincere and that the praise is undeserved.

#### MEDICINE, &c.

Art. 23. *Observations on the inflammatory Affections of the Mucous Membrane of the Bronchia.* By Charles Badham, M.D. &c. &c. 12mo. 4s. Boards. Callow. 1808.

The object of this treatise may be ascertained from a passage in the preface. After having stated that it is a general opinion that pleurisy and peripneumony are the only acute diseases of the organs of respiration, the author adds that ‘there is also an acute inflammation of the air-passages, attended with fever, orthopnoea, and cough, and often, perhaps generally, having a fatal termination.’ This disease, he thinks, has not obtained sufficient attention, or has even been entirely overlooked; and in confirmation of this opinion, he briefly reviews what has been written on the subject, first by the ancients, and afterward by the more modern writers. On the whole, we are disposed to agree with Dr. Badham, that the inflammatory affection of the Bronchia has not been so distinctly treated either by systematic or by practical writers, as its real importance demands. Yet we conceive, that all medical men are aware of its existence, if not as a primary, at least as a secondary disease, and that our practice is frequently directed to its removal. Waiving, however, the discussion of this point, we shall follow the author to his 3d chapter; in which he describes the bronchial tubes, and observes that; from their structure and office, they are peculiarly liable to become the seat of disease.

‘They are more immediately exposed to the influence of the atmosphere, and to the effects of cold, and the quantity of surface which they present is great: they are, besides, highly vascular, abound with mucous glands or follicles, and numberless small vessels open into their cavity to supply the halitus of the lungs.’

To the diseases of this part he proposes to assign the generic title of *Bronchitis*; and this he divides into three species, under the epithets of *acute*, *asthenic*, and *chronic*: the first designating the inflammatory affection which forms the principal subject of the treatise; the second, what is now called Peripneumonia Notha; and the third being applied to different varieties of chronic cough. He begins by describing the second of these affections, because it is the one most commonly known in this country; and the other he refers to this as a convenient standard. The descriptions which he gives of the *bronchitis asthenica* in its different stages, of its progress, and of its termination, are intitled to considerable praise, and appear to us to indicate an accurate turn for observation. The fourth chapter treats on the *Bronchitis acuta*; of which also we have an account of the symptoms, progress, and termination, and of the appearances exhibited after death. The disease is commonly produced by exposure to cold; it comes on suddenly; and both the local affections and the general derangement of the constitution are marked with considerable violence. On dissection, the lungs are found to be in a natural state, but the Bronchiz are filled with a tenacious secretion, and have their surface inflamed; so as to convey an idea that this affection bears a close resemblance to *Cynanche trachealis*, and, indeed, differing from it chiefly in occupying a lower part of the same organ.

The symptoms which the author has assigned to his *bronchitis acuta* would, we apprehend, be generally referred to Peripneumony; and we do not very clearly perceive how they are to be distinguished. Dr. B. observes that,

“The local symptoms exceed in violence those of pleuritic or peripneumonic affections; again, it destroys life often within a week from the attack, which other inflammatory affections of the lungs very seldom do; and the suddenness of the conversion from a state of inflammatory action to an irremediable debility, is particularly striking, and will be invariably found to attend it; and though this debility will be observed in all the functions of the body, yet it is the pulse which most unequivocally shews it.”

It is obvious, however, that this is a very imperfect diagnosis. The distinction between *bronchitis* and *pleuritis* is more marked, probably because the seat of the two diseases is more distinct, and their limits are better defined. We suspect that a kind of gradation may exist from *cynanche trachealis* to *bronchitis*, and from *bronchitis* to *peripneumony*; that they consist of the same species of affection occupying different parts of the organ; and that in some cases they retain their distinct situations, but that at other times they run into each other. The variation in their symptoms may be referred to a difference in their locality, and the direct effect which they must produce on the function of respiration.

The treatment of *bronchitis acuta*, supposing its existence to be distinctly ascertained, must agree with that of other inflammatory affections of these organs. Bleeding, blistering, and diaphoretics are recommended in the usual manner; if any novelty marks Dr. Badham's treatment, it is in the more free employment of antimony, which, he seems to think, has an immediate action on the mucous secretions of

the Bronchiæ. On the whole, however, the value of this treatise we consider as depending more on its pathology than on any practical information which we derive from it: in the former point of view, it must be considered as affording some addition to our previous knowledge.

**Art. 24.** *An Inquiry into the Symptoms and Treatment of Carditis; or the Inflammation of the Heart; illustrated by Cases and Dissections.* By John Ford Davis, M.D. 12mo. 5s. Boards, Longman and Co. 1808.

Carditis is a disease which regularly holds its place in all medical systems, which is described by professors in their lectures, and of which we have the symptoms and treatment methodically detailed: yet we apprehend that we shall very seldom find a practical man, who will unequivocally declare that he has ever met with a decided instance of it. Among all the dissections that have been prosecuted with so much assiduity, we do not recollect that any cases are recorded, which can with certainty be referred to this cause; in which the disease was pronounced to exist before death, and in which the phenomena of inflammation were afterward found on examination. The definitions and histories that are given seem to be merely drawn up from theory, and from an idea of what would take place, were the heart to become inflamed, since not one of the symptoms enumerated is truly pathognomonic, and some of those that are always assigned to the disease appear to be entirely imaginary. With this impression on our minds, we took up the present volume with a considerable degree of scepticism, and yet with some feeling of interest; because although Carditis has hitherto remained in obscurity, we did not consider it as impossible that Dr. Davis might have been more fortunate or more sagacious than his predecessors.

Before he proceeds to state his own experience on the subject, Dr. D. begins by relating the opinions that have been entertained respecting it by some of the most eminent systematics and nosologists. The Arabian physicians, Bonetus, Lieutaud, Morgagni, Senac, Sauvages, Van Swieten, Cullen, Burserius, Darwin, and Baillie, with many others of less note, all pass under review, and at least prove that Dr. Davis possesses a respectable share of medical erudition, and has bestowed on his subject a due degree of attention. Farther than this we do not know that any thing can be learned from this section, except that the subject is involved in obscurity.

After this introductory matter, we have three original cases detailed, which form the proper subject of the volume. Of these, only one fell under the author's own inspection; of the two others, the first was communicated by Dr. Haygarth, and the second by Dr. Boisragon and Mr. Tudor. The name of Dr. Haygarth gives respectability to whatever is connected with it; the other gentlemen are yet unknown to the medical public. The cases are related with a considerable degree of minuteness: they terminated fatally; and, on dissection, marks of inflammation were detected in the heart and pericardium. We are here naturally led to consider whether any train of symptoms existed in these cases, which would have enabled the practitioner to predict the existence of the disease of the heart; and we shall feel no hesitation in answering this question in the negative.

negative. The author seems himself to be aware of the difficulty : for he says that ' the anguish which is felt in the region of the heart appears to be more characteristic of carditis than any other symptom ;' and again, ' if there be any pathognomonic symptom, it is the extreme anguish that is felt in the region of the heart.' The other symptoms which have been usually assigned to this disease, and which from theory might have been expected to attend it, were not constantly present ; such as syncope, irregular pulse, palpitation, and the usual marks of deeply seated inflammation. This circumstance shews in what way nosologists and systematic writers have formed their ideas of the disease.

On the whole, we should conclude that the present state of our knowledge does not afford us the means of ascertaining the existence of carditis ; nor does it seem possible to class under any one specific denomination, the irregular and multifarious symptoms which were observed in these three cases. Dr. Davis's work is so respectably executed that it may serve as an useful document for future collectors ; and in the mean time it affords a good abstract of the present state of our information on the subject.

## L A W.

Art. 25. *A Treatise on the Law of Tithes* ; compiled in part from some Notes of Richard Woodeson, Esq., D.C.L. By Samuel Toller, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 312. 10s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth.

The knowledge and diligence which distinguish both the learned gentlemen whose names adorn the title-page of the present volume, raised expectations among the profession which have not been fully satisfied. It would seem that partnership, which frequently answers so well in trade, is not adapted to literary undertakings. Each of these gentlemen, acting separately, has sent forth to the world performances which possess respectively degrees of merit of which their united labours fall considerably short. The present pages abound in errors of the press, and are not free from some others of a graver nature. The plan of the work has our approbation, and we think that the scale on which it has been executed is convenient. By a rigid revision, it may be rendered valuable.

Art. 26. *History of the King's Inns ; or an Account of the legal Body in Ireland*, from its Connection with England. In Three Parts. Part I. to the Death of Elizabeth. By Bartholomew Thomas Dubigg, Esq., Barrister at Law, Assistant Barrister for the County of Wexford, and Librarian to the Honourable Society of the King's Inns. 8vo. pp. 613. 12s. Boards. Printed at Dublin, and sold in London by Ridgway.

Much of the matter which is contained in this volume would have excited considerable interest if it had been clothed in a style less veiled with mystery, and delivered in a tone less lugubrious. We on this side of the water stand in need of a key to assist us to the meaning of many of the hints, allusions, and dark expressions with which it

abounds, and which may be very intelligible to the members of the King's Inns, but are to us pure enigmas.

The reader will observe some remarkable differences between the functions of the guardians of the avenues to the profession of the law in Ireland, and those of their fellows in this country. We particularly refer to the controul over attorneys which is exercised by the Irish Benchers. The authority which courts in this country have assumed over solicitors is doubtless a very salutary part of our judicial system: but we can see no good reason for making them in any respect dependent on the masters of the Bench.

**Art. 27.** *A Treatise on Pleading, on the Equity Side of the High Court of Chancery.* By George Cooper, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 395. 13s. Boards. Butterworth. 1809.

The changes which time has introduced into this vast and important branch of our law, since the publication of the second edition of the treatise by Mr. Mitford, (now Lord Redesdale,) rendered highly necessary some such service as that which in the present instance has been attempted by Mr. Cooper. In this volume, the whole of that most excellent performance is incorporated with the corresponding matter which subsequent decisions furnish; and this important task has been performed in a judicious and liberal manner. Mr. Cooper has also ventured on several occasions to depart from the method of his original, and his deviations are in general happy.—Giving him this praise, however, (which is justly due to him,) we cannot admit the propriety of his assuming the style of *author* of a performance which owes so much of its value to the labours of another; a fact of which we think, the title-page ought to have contained some notification; but we must add that, throughout the work, the matter of the former treatise is every where pointed out.

We wish that the editor (for so, without any desire to disparage his meritorious services, we must take the liberty of designating him,) had more emulated the neat and concise style of his original, and that the old and the new matter had been in this respect less dissimilar.

#### RELIGIOUS.

**Art. 28.** *Discourses delivered at the Ordination of the Rev. Thomas Raffles,* over the Congregational Church at Hammersmith, late under the pastoral Care of the Rev. William Humphryes, on Thursday, June 22. 1809. The introductory Discourse, by the Rev. John Humphrys, of Union Street, Borough. The Charge, by the Rev. William Bengo Collyer, D. D. of Peckham. And the Sermon to the People, by the Rev. Robert Winter, D. D. of New Court. Together with a Confession of Faith, &c. by Thomas Raffles. 8vo. pp. 66. 2s. 6d. Maxwell and Co.

Ordination among protestant dissenters is a long and interesting\* service; generally including, with the various discourses specified in

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\* According to Mr. H's introductory discourse, we should have said *most* interesting; since he bombastically tells us that Heaven, Earth, and Hell, may be expected to take a lively concern in the transactions of that day!

the above title, an ordination prayer; and accompanied by the imposition of hands of the ministers, or overseers of God's flock present, with other devotional exercises. In this public consecration or ordination of Mr. Thomas Raffles to the work of the christian ministry, every form in use among dissenters was employed; and if a divine impulse be necessary in this important business, the dissenting church does not yield to the episcopal in the spirituality of its functions on this occasion. As in the Establishment the Holy Ghost is the moving principle by which the clergyman professes himself to be actuated in applying for ordination, so here the great head of the church (the Lord Jesus Christ) is stated to have directed the church in choosing their pastor, and the minister in accepting the office. By the account which Mr. Raffles gives of himself, he appears to be a virtuous and regularly educated young man; and by his confession of faith, we are led to place him in the class of Calvinistic dissenters. His system of belief is probably that of his college; and while Mr. R. very candidly states the grounds of his dissent from the Established Church, he will afford the clergy an opportunity of remarking that this formula of belief is not less objectionable than the 39 articles. How far the doctrine of an eternally *pre-determined* and *ordained* number of *elect* is compatible with the plenitude of divine grace, with the *indiscriminate* publication of the glad tidings of the gospel to *all*, and with the appointment of a day of judgment, we leave others to determine. Considering the state of the controversy with the Evangelical preachers, we are inclined to think that Mr. Raffles's confession will attract more notice than any other parts of the service; but we do not feel ourselves required to comment on its several articles.

Dr. Collyer's charge is truly episcopal. Lawn sleeves could not have given it more dignity. We question whether he be fully authorized by the text on which he grounds his comments, (Acts xx, 28.) or by the state of equality subsisting in the protestant dissenting church, in making ministers a distinct order, far elevated above deacons; and we venture to assert that he is not altogether correct in claiming for dissenting ministers the title of *clergy*. The law recognizes them as *reverend*, but not as *clerks*; the latter epithet being appropriated to the established priesthood. No bishop, however, of any church, could offer better advice to a young man entering on the work of the ministry than Dr. C. has here given. His directions respecting preaching, and the public duties of a christian minister, are excellent; and his subsequent hints on private behaviour and deportment are sensible, and discover considerable knowledge of mankind. Availing himself of the suggestion of his learned friend Dr. Smith, he ingenuously confesses that the true reading of his text is not "*Feed the Church of God*," but, "*Feed the Church of THE LORD.*"

The sermon addressed to the people by Dr. Winter, from 1 Cor. xvi. 10, is replete with serious and suitable exhortations, calculated to give an edifying effect to the spiritual connection which subsists between a minister and his congregation.

In point of composition, the whole service before us is creditable to the parties engaged: The language is plain but forcible; such as proceeds from men who feel a solemn duty, and are desirous of honestly discharging it.

## MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 29. *Memoirs of Maria, Countess d'Alva*; being neither Novel nor Romance, but appertaining to both. Interspersed with Historic Facts and comic Incidents; in the Course of which are introduced Fragments and Circumstances, not altogether inapplicable to the Events of this distracted Age, and to the Measures of the fore-sighted Defenders of our Holy Faith. By Priscilla Parlante. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. Miller. 1808.

To this long epitomizing title-page, the motto affixed is,

“ If the cap fits, wear it :”

but

“ *La Cappe rance*

*Son di piombo si grosso,*

that, we imagine, few can be willing to obey the injunction.

The beginning of this book is filled with annals of parental cruelties; and the Countess d'Alva, Burford, and Rapid, all trace their misfortunes to the persecutions of their nearest relations. The author has taken various liberties with history, of which the most original is that of adapting celebrated names to fictitious personages; and the Duke of Alva, the Earl of Lennox, and Sir Francis Walsingham all receive cousins at Miss Parlante's hands. She also professes to clothe the epistles and memoirs of her characters in modern language; and we will not quarrel with her for suppressing the black letter: but we should like to know by what authority she covers their walls with ‘*trellis-paper*.’—She indulges in some encomiums on matured beauty and sarcasms on girlish insipidity, which were dictated no doubt by her own peculiar taste, but which tend to plant a few wrinkles on the brows of the heroine; and, though in real life it may be a duty to sympathize with the old and the ugly, still the heroine of a romance should be arrayed in all the youthful charms with which fancy can invest her. We think that the ‘porter Barthelomew,’ brandishing his torch, is too palpable an imitation of Mrs. Radcliffe's Barnardine; and that much matter in these memoirs might have been advantageously omitted. The style also is not entirely free from affectation, nor always exempt from vulgarity. Yet still the work displays invention and ingenuity; great variety is manifested in the incidents; and it is impossible not to feel considerably interested in the sufferings and adventures of the principal character.

Art. 30. *The Cambrian Traveller's Guide, and Pocket Companion*; containing the collected Information of the most popular and authentic Writers, relating to the Principality of Wales, and Parts of the adjoining Counties; augmented by considerable Additions,



the result of various Excursions ; comprehending Histories and Descriptions of the Cities, Towns, Villages, Castles, Mansions, Palaces, Abbeys, Churches, Inns, Mountains, Rocks, Waterfalls, Ferries, Bridges, Passes, &c. &c. arranged into Alphabetical Order. Also Descriptions of what is remarkable in the intermediate Spaces, as, Solitary Houses, Forts, Encampments, &c. &c. The Roads are described, the Distances given, and the distinct Routes of Aikin, Barber, Bingley, Coxe, Donovan, Evans, Hutton, Malkin, Pennant, Skrine, Warner, and Wyndham are preserved. The Whole interspersed with historic and biographic Notices, with Natural History, Botany, Mineralogy ; and with Remarks on the Commerce, Manufactures, Agriculture, and Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants. 8vo. pp. 360. 7s. 6d. Boards. Symonds.

Of late years, a Tour into Wales has been considered by many persons as forming part of a complete education ; and for the use of those who wish to explore this interesting district, various itineraries have been published. These, however, appeared to the present compiler either too concise or too voluminous ; and he has therefore endeavoured to concentrate the substance of the more eminent publications on the subject. To the attainment of this object, he has devoted considerable labour ; and he has produced a volume which includes almost every thing that is interesting in the works of the writers mentioned in the title-page. It will consequently recommend itself to those who are desirous of gaining information respecting the Principality, and will form a desirable companion to such as are indulged with a personal view of its picturesque and sublime scenery.

Art. 31. *Beauties selected from the Writings of James Beattie, LL.D.* late Professor of Moral Philosophy and Logic in the Marishal College and University of Aberdeen, arranged in a *perspicuous and pleasing Manner*, under the following Heads ; Poetical, Moral, Philosophical, Theological, Critical, and Epistolary. To which are prefixed a Life of the Author and an Account of his Writings, by William Mudford. With Notes on the First Book of the Minstrel, by Thomas Gray, LL.B. 12mo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

The Life of Dr. Beattie, with which this volume commences, is written with more ability than candour. Sir William Forbes, the Doctor's former biographer, is accused of 'doubtful sagacity,' and is told that he does not possess sufficient 'discrimination of mind to paint the intellectual and moral character of Dr. Beattie ;' and yet Mr. Mudford condescends to copy his narrative almost verbatim from Sir William's memoir : interspersing it, however, with his own animadversions, in which the poet is as little spared as his biographer. Mr. M. says that 'the fact is not very creditable to Beattie,' that 'he condescended to remove Lord Gardenstone's suspicions by a translation from the Latin of Lucretius :' but we cannot admit the refinement of pride, which would revolt at his removing such natural doubts by a translation which gave conviction of his talents, and evidence of its own originality. — Neither do we concur in Mr.

Mudford's

Mudford's opinion that the publication of letters 'is a plan which can seldom please equal to (*equally with*) a perspicuous and copious detail of facts.'—When a man's private correspondence can be published without imprudence, it furnishes more documents for judging of his character than can be obtained in any other way; and that is perhaps the most pleasing and rational method which gives us anecdotes of his conduct and transcripts of his thoughts, from which all readers may form their own opinion of his mind and talents.

In the selection of Beattie's works which follows the life, we are told that 'the whole of his poems will be found:' but the "Ode to Peace," and "the Triumph of Melancholy," which Sir William Forbes inserted in his appendix, are not among them. The prose extracts display as much judgment as can be exercised in such dissections and mutilations; and though the type in which the poetry is printed is inconveniently small, the selection may be acceptable to those admirers of Beattie, who are unable to procure the more expensive editions of his works.

Art. 32. *A Short Narrative of the late Campaign of the British Army, under the Orders of the Right Honourable the Earl of Chatham, K. G. with preliminary Remarks on the Topography and Channels of Zeeland.* 8vo. 4s. Boards. Ridgway. 1810.

Every appearance of authenticity and accuracy attaches itself to this account, which is also well illustrated by a large map of the province of Zeeland, and a sketch of the attack on Flushing. It has, we believe, been quoted as authority in the House of Commons; and such private information as we have received corroborates the representations of the author. He writes like a man of sense and penetration, and expresses himself with British freedom respecting many of those instances of ignorance and mismanagement, which have now become notorious in the plan and conduct of this disgraceful expedition.

Art. 33. *Letters from Flushing, containing an Account of the Expedition to Walcheren, Beveland, and the Mouth of the Scheldt, under the Command of the Earl of Chatham.* To which is added, a Topographical and Statistical Account of the Islands of Walcheren and Beveland. By an Officer of the Eighty-First Regiment. 8vo. pp. 288. 9s. Boards. R. Phillips.

We have here a much more copious account of the late expedition, than is afforded in the work just noticed: but the writer is more minute rather with respect to the country and its inhabitants than in mere military detail. The extent and variety of his remarks, indeed, excite a little surprize, considering the shortness of his stay, and the nature of his employment. His account, however, bears equal marks of authority and correctness; and his letters, which are written with an ease and a freedom that belong to the epistolary style, bespeak observation, impartiality, and good sense. If in any case he finds that he has been previously misinformed, or has judged wrongly, he corrects himself with laudable frankness; as in the instance of the climate of Walcheren, which at first he represents favourably, but afterward sees melancholy reason to depict

in other colours. With regard to the expedition itself, he confesses that it has failed, and that blame is due somewhere : but he constantly asserts that, as to military operation, every thing that could be done was done, while he thinks that in the planning of it ' ministers were flagrantly deceived.'

' The first thought (he says) of the Expedition, (that is) of one to the Scheldt, originated in the time of Mr. Pitt. General Dumourier was at that time in England, and was consulted upon the occasion. It was his opinion that such an Expedition could not succeed, that the line of the Scheldt was too strong, that a *coup de main* was impossible, and that to effect any thing by a regular army would demand too great a force, and a succession of campaigns. It seems to me very extraordinary that, in the face of this opinion, the English Ministry should have persisted in making the attempt.'

We have always reprobated the savage custom of *sharp-shooting*, lately introduced into European warfare ; and we are glad to find not only the sentiments of this writer inclining the same way, but also the very practice of our private men guided by a similar honest feeling of nature. It is related that, during the siege of Flushing,

' General Osten, the second in command, exposed himself in every sortie, and was daily visible on the ramparts. You will ask why some of our marksmen have not picked him out. I can give you a probable answer, from a circumstance which I have frequently heard from the officers who have served in Spain. When our soldiers have ever seen an enemy's officer fight with more than usual courage, they have almost invariably marked him out to *spare him*—" It is a pity to shoot so fine a fellow." How different is this conduct from that of the French, who as invariably aim their rifles at our best officers ! Another trait of a British soldier fell within my own knowledge. Seeing a fellow fire his musket as I thought without an aim, I asked him at what he was firing. " Into the enemy's line."—" Take aim at a certain object," said I ; " fix on your man, and make that your aim." The fellow, however, still continued in his own way. . . On my rebuking him sharply, he told me resolutely *that his heart would not let him take a fixed aim at one certain man* ; " and it answers all the same purpose, Sir, to fire in the crowd."

In the author's remarks also on Congreve's Rockets, and on the English Government's late decree making Bark contraband of war, we perceive the traits of a generous and feeling mind, resembling the sentiments of the *preux chevalier* of old times.

The gallant conduct of the seamen, who were landed to work some of the batteries, is thus correctly stated :

' Of the batteries which chiefly distinguished themselves in the bombardment, one of them, commanded by Captain Richardson, of the *Cæsar*, astonished us all. It consisted of six twenty-four pounders, and played on the enemy incessantly. Every discharge seemed to be followed by a vast crash and ruin in the town. I must observe, by the way, that the seamen are all engineers, and manage the batteries as well, I had almost said better, than any of our artillery officers. They fire their batteries by broadside, and the reports

reports of the individual pieces are seldom distinguishable. They always play, moreover, against a certain point till they have demolished it. I cannot, however, say that their aim is as exact as that of our engineers; but they certainly excel them in what I term the fire by broadsides. Their six-gun battery invariably went off as if only one gun.'

We must add a part of the writer's sketches of character among the Hollanders.

'My former opinion of the Dutch has only been confirmed by all that I have lately seen: I think that they bear a nearer resemblance to the English than any other nation in the world. A Dutch boor is the counterpart of an English peasant, grave, immovable in his visage and deportment, but withal not wanting in natural benevolence. Their forms, however, have not the same symmetry with those of Englishmen: they are invariably thickset, large headed, and broad shoulders. Their women have complexions not inferior to those of my countrywomen; but they want their animation and their intelligence. In England only do the minds of women seem on a par with those of men. In a Dutch assembly the point of manners amongst the women is to maintain an invincible silence, and a fixed reserve.

'By all that I have seen, I have no hesitation to say that, next to my own countrymen, the Dutch appear to me the most moral and religious nation on the face of the globe, and are therefore the most valuable men. The men, even in a humid climate, are examples of a rigid sobriety; and the women, even in despite of the contagion of French example, are chaste, ingenuous and unaffected. A Dutch Lutheran Church, in the simplicity and neatness of its appearance, resembles an English Quakers' meeting; the faces of the women are concealed under modest bonnets, and if you at any time catch their eyes, they receive your gaze with the innocence and unconcern of children; they look at you till their curiosity is satisfied, and then revert to the preacher and the prayer-book.'

A map of Zealand, and plans of Flushing and Fort Lillo, accompany the volume. — In p. 12. a ridiculous typographical error occurs; 'Sir *Author* Paget,' for Sir *Arthur* Paget.

Art. 34. *A Narrative of Circumstances attending the Retreat of the British Army under the Command of the late Lieut. Gen. Sir John Moore, K.B.* With a concise Account of the memorable Battle of Corunna, and subsequent Embarkation of His Majesty's Troops; and a few Remarks connected with these Subjects. By H. Milburne, Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, London, and late Surgeon in the Spanish Service. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Egerton. 1809.

Mr. Milburne's narrative was among the first private accounts that appeared, of the melancholy event to which it relates, and ought sooner to have been announced by us to the public; whom it will gratify by a number of interesting particulars, related with modesty and feeling, and with all the appearance of fidelity. His professional exertions seem to have been very handsomely and zealously volunteered. His description of the retreat of Sir John Moore's Army,

Army, as far as he witnessed it, which was only from Astorga to Corunna, contains many distressing anecdotes, similar to those which other narrators have reported. His account of the battle of Corunna is rather more minutely given than we have in general seen it; and as he was a spectator, and 'subsequently ascertained the names of officers and corps engaged,' he hopes that it is 'tolerably correct.'

Mr. M. is inclined to extenuate the want of assistance from the Spaniards to the retreating English, which has been so generally charged on them, by alleging their own distressed situation:

'It is undeniable, (he says) that on many occasions, where provisions and other necessaries were expected to have been cheerfully and abundantly supplied by the inhabitants of towns through which the British troops marched, that little or none could be obtained on any terms whatever. This, however, did not originate, as has been erroneously asserted, in any dislike of the Spaniards to the English, but merely from the extreme distress in which they were themselves involved. Great numbers of the cattle had been driven to the mountains for security against the rapacity of the French; and their stores of other provisions were almost exhausted by supplies for their countrymen in arms; and as the operations in agriculture were in a great measure suspended, they had a dismal prospect to look forward to for future exigencies; these circumstances of course rendered these poor unfortunate persons (exposed to all the calamities of a residence on the theatre of war, of which an adequate idea can scarcely be formed by any one but an eye-witness,) reluctant to part with the slender pittance in their possession.

'To the above may be added, that the unexpected retreat of the British army increased all their apprehensions in an eminent degree, whilst its sudden appearance in their towns precluded the possibility of the inhabitants supplying themselves from the adjacent country with the articles required. The total ignorance of the Spanish language on the part of the English soldiers, and *vice versa*, also occasioned mutual misunderstandings, which were in a few instances attended with disagreeable consequences. Another cause why the expectations of the British army as to receiving requisite accommodations and assistance from the inhabitants were so frequently disappointed, was the immense numbers of their sick and wounded countrymen, who were flocking from the seats of war in the different quarters of the kingdom towards their respective homes, with whom the towns were continually crowded. The situation and wretched appearance of these unfortunate people were truly pitiable; those unable to walk were conveyed on cars, whilst others through hunger, sickness, and fatigue, scarcely able to crawl, were compelled to make their way on foot, almost naked, and generally without shoes or stockings. Even in the Spanish hospitals, and other places set apart for the reception of the sick and wounded, the unhappy patients were nearly destitute of every requisite to sustain existence, not to say of the conveniences and comforts necessary for their condition. Some judgment may be formed of their distresses, from the circumstance of one poor man, who, according to the interpretation of my native servant, asserted that he had been fourteen days without

without any other sustenance than a little bad wine, and sometimes a small quantity of broth made of vegetables and oil: indeed, his appearance fully established the veracity of his statement.'

A more favourable idea of the spirit, energy, and wisdom, of the Juntas, and other directing men in Spain, seems to have been entertained by Mr. M. when he wrote, than, we presume, he would now express.

**Art. 35. *National Life-Annuities*:** comprising all the Tables, and every necessary Information contained in the Act of Parliament for granting the same, both on single and joint Lives, with Benefit of Survivorship; also additional Tables, annexed to the former, shewing what Annuity can be purchased for 100l. Sterling at the same Rates upon the same Lives. By E. F. T. Fortune, Stockbroker. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boosey.

By the Act of Parliament mentioned in this title-page, Government invested itself with the functions of an Insurance-Company; and those who desired to purchase an annuity on their own life, or on that of another, might do so with the advantage of Government-Security: but whether on cheaper terms or not, we are not enabled to say. Those persons who wish to purchase annuities of any amount, if they possess not the Act of Parliament, may find it convenient to consult the present tables, the premium for information being only 3s. 6d. The additional tables, shewing what annuity can be purchased for 100l. sterling, are, however, rather unnecessary; since almost all holders of stock are acquainted with the Rule of Three, or with equivalent methods of computation.

### CORRESPONDENCE.

'A Reader of the Monthly Review' was very welcome to 'indulge his whim,' as he expresses it,—since, as he also observes, 'the postage of his letter is paid:' but when he adds that we 'need not read it,' he supposes us to be more at liberty than the case allowed, for how could we tell that it was of no importance till we *had* read it?—We *have* read it, but we cannot say that we are much wiser than we were before. We may "approve his lays," but we understand not his meaning.

*Alexis* is informed that it would be against all rule and convenience for us to comply with his request.

The letter about the Rowleian MSS. is received, and the writer's joke is taken in good part.

\* \* The APPENDIX to our last volume was published on the 1st of February, with the Review for January.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For MARCH, 1810.

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ART. I. *Letter from the Right Honourable Lord Grenville to the Earl of Fingall.* 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1810.

Few circumstances of the present important reign will be regarded by posterity with livelier interest, than the relation which this noble writer has borne to the Catholic question. To his immortal honour it will be remembered that he retired with Mr. Pitt from office, when their administration was defeated in the attempt to execute the measures which they regarded as necessary in favour of a large, meritorious, and oppressed body of their fellow-subjects; that he refused to return to power in conjunction with that distinguished statesman, when the latter accepted it under a pledge\* to abstain from again urging the just claims of the Irish Catholics; that he stood forwards in 1805, in conjunction with Mr. Fox, as the advocate of their complete emancipation; and that, two years afterward, he resigned the highest distinctions that royalty can bestow, rather than abandon the righteous cause which he had defended.

Again, in the year 1808, Lord Grenville submitted the case of the large majority of the population of Ireland to the consideration of the House of Lords; and we believe that he then for the first time publicly suggested the propriety of requiring that, in return for the concessions which he recommended on our part, the negative voice, which the Pope had always enjoyed in the nomination of Catholic Bishops, should be by them transferred to the English monarch. His Lordship appears to have considered himself as invested with a sort of authority by the Catholic body to make a tender of this *veto*, which was at the same time proposed to be lodged in the crown by some of those who, in the House of Commons, preferred a similar motion

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\* This fact is stated on the authority of Viscount Melville, in the debate on the Marquis of Stafford's motion respecting the expulsion of the late ministry.

about the same time. When this new question, however, came to be discussed by those who were to be affected by it, their opinions were found to have been either imperfectly collected, or unfairly represented; and the public journals informed us that the *veto* was generally refused, not without some surprise at the premature tender of it, and some indignation at the charge which that offer might seem to insinuate against the existing race of bishops, and the former method of appointing them.

Though this rejection might be lamented by well-wishers to the cause of toleration, the whole effect of it, we think, was to restore the question to the same state in which it had been, before the *veto* was proposed; and the Catholics of Ireland, who had formerly received Lord Grenville's unconditional support, lodged their renewed petition, with full confidence, in his hands. To their application the letter before us is the answer; in which Lord G., without refusing to lay their petition on the table of the House of Peers, declares his resolution not to be at present the mover of any proposition founded on it.—The letter is dated January the 22d, 1810; within a very short time after which date, it was published in the newspapers, whether by the noble writer, or by the Earl of Fingall, to whom it is addressed, we are not informed, nor is it of much importance to inquire. As to the object of the petition, Lord Grenville's opinion remains unchanged:

'It would, I think, (says he,) be an act of undeniable wisdom and justice to communicate to our fellow-subjects professing the Roman Catholic Religion, the full enjoyment of our Civil Constitution. Such a measure, *accompanied by suitable arrangements maturely prepared; and deliberately adopted*, would, I am confident, above all others, give strength and unity to the Empire, and increased security to its Religious and Civil Establishments. Your Lordship is well aware, that on this conviction only have I supported it. To those Establishments I am unalterably attached; their inviolable maintenance I have ever considered as essential to all the dearest interests of my country. But they rest, I am certain, on foundations much too firm; they are far too deeply rooted in the affections of that community to which they dispense the blessings of Religion, Order, and Liberty, to require the adventitious and dangerous support of partial restrictions, fruitful in discontent, but for security wholly inefficient.'

This passage may perhaps leave the reader in some doubt whether the *suitable arrangements*, among which we presume that the *veto* is at least included, are regarded as only expedient and desirable, or are required as necessary conditions, on which alone the existing restraints and disabilities can safely be removed. We shall discuss this point presently on both suppositions.



suppositions.—After having spoken of his former efforts in the same cause, and declared that, on a proper and favourable occasion, it would be his ‘highest gratification to stand forwards once more as the chosen advocate of national conciliation,’ Lord Grenville announces his deliberate opinion that no such motion could at this time be proposed, without great and permanent disadvantage to its object; an opinion founded not only on the known dispositions of Government and the Legislature, but also on the unexpected difficulties which are said to have arisen in Ireland.

On obstacles of the former description, the noble author says that it would be invidious to expatiate; and perhaps it is somewhat *inconsistent* even to allude to them, since we apprehend that they were perfectly well known to exist with equal force, at the time when Lord Grenville last presented the subject to the attention of Parliament:—but we would here enter our humble though earnest protest against the doctrine to be implied from the last sentence, viz. that measures are unfit to be proposed for discussion, because they are unlikely at the moment to be carried into effect. This principle would make it necessary for every member of Parliament to ask the Minister’s leave to propose any measure, and, carried a little farther, would completely silence the voice of opposition. If the Legislature and the Government are liable to be enslaved by noxious prejudices, (a fact which is not very improbable in theory, while it is placed by experience beyond the reach of doubt,) how are these prejudices to be removed but by indefatigable perseverance, and repeated discussion? Recent events may teach us the useful and consoling lesson that reason, justice, and humanity, must ultimately triumph, if they can be fairly heard: but if Mr. Wilberforce had in the year 1790 addressed a letter to Mr. Clarkson, in which he declined to renew his motion for the abolition of the Slave Trade, in deference to the known dispositions of Government and the Legislature, we believe that England would not be indebted to Lord Grenville’s administration for the only great and lasting benefit that it was able to confer on the country.

Lord Grenville reverts to the proceedings and difficulties in Ireland, which, though stated in the plural number, are confined, we believe, to the solitary measure of the *veto*:

‘Many circumstances compel me to speak to your Lordship more at large of the recent proceedings in Ireland; with reference both to their origin and to their consequences. For this purpose I must beg leave to recall to your Lordship’s recollection the grounds on which the consideration of these Petitions has uniformly been recommended to Parliament. That which you have asked, and which has been

supported by the greatest Statesmen of our time, now no more, is not in its nature a single or unconnected measure. Its objects are, the Peace and Happiness of Ireland, and the Union of the Empire in Affection as well as in Government. Vain indeed would be the hope of accomplishing such purposes, solely by the repeal of a few partial disqualifications, remaining by a strange anomaly amidst the ruins of a whole Code of Proscription. To impute to you this visionary pretension, has been the artifice of your Opponents. The views of your Friends have been more enlarged.

‘With the just and salutary extension of Civil Rights to your Body must be combined, if tranquillity and union be our object, other extensive and complicated arrangements. All due provision must be made for the inviolable maintenance of the Religious and Civil Establishments of this United Kingdom. Much must be done for mutual conciliation, much for common safety, many contending interests must be reconciled, many jealousies allayed, many long cherished and mutually destructive prejudices eradicated.’

Those persons who most cordially subscribe to the truth of these observations will perhaps be the farthest from adopting the conclusion, that the just claims of the injured ought not to be powerfully enforced and fully granted, because there may be some part of their conduct which we should rather wish to see altered. However desirable it may be to invest His Majesty with the *veto*, as a part of the religious constitution of the Catholics, the real question is whether it would be practically dangerous to admit them to a full participation of the rights of Englishmen, without that security. We well remember Lord Grenville's pointed sarcasms against those who trembled at the Pope, while he yet possessed a nominal power, and was entirely under the influence of France: can it, then, be with gravity that he is now represented as a more tremendous personage, when the very name of his authority is annihilated, and he is become the pensioned slave of Bonaparte?

We cannot help observing that the language of this letter, with the constant appearance of labouring at precision, is any thing rather than explicit. The perplexity occasioned by our first glance over it has been increased by every fresh perusal; and the doubt has never ceased to haunt us, whether the *veto* be exacted from the Catholics as a *sine quâ non*, or merely recommended to their adoption as a prudent and useful measure of conciliation. Suppose the point to be yielded, would Lord Grenville renew his motion, notwithstanding the known dispositions of Government and the Legislature? Or, if those dispositions were to undergo a sudden and unexpected change, does his Lordship deem the present mode of appointing bishops so objectionable, that, while it continues, he would decline to make the concessions?

If it be essential to the security of our establishments that the *veto* should be lodged in the Crown, it will naturally be asked whether the promise of indulgence to the Catholics, which purchased their support to or connivance at the unpopular measure of the Union, was made on that condition : it will be asked whether in 1805 Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville explained to the Catholics, whose petition they presented, what they certainly did not explain to Parliament and the Country, that this sacrifice must be made by them before they could be admitted to their share of the constitution ; and above all, Lord Howick's celebrated bill will be examined, to discover whether the *veto* was then required as an equivalent for its important indulgences.

If on none of these occasions, nor at any time previous to the year 1808,—no, not even when the highest military offices were voluntarily proffered to the Catholics,—any previous arrangements were so much as intimated, we confess that some stronger reasons appear to us to be necessary to justify an abrupt refusal to renew the motion in favour of the Catholics, than any which are here advanced.

Perhaps it may be urged that the measure of the *veto*, though not absolutely indispensable, would be highly expedient ; and that Lord Grenville, by declining to move in favour of the Catholics, may induce them to make an offer of it to the Crown, as a consideration for the concessions to be allowed. Such a bargain is surely not likely to succeed, with those who conscientiously believe that it would be improper to invest a prince of a different religion with any power over their bishops. The point of honour has bound them, during a whole century of oppression, to their persecuted faith ; and we cannot now expect them to barter for their worldly interests any one of the religious scruples which they have cherished at so dear a price.

We pay no regard to the calumnious conjectures of the day, which have not failed to ascribe this publication to the wish of removing "objections in a certain high quarter" against Lord Grenville's return to power, by shewing a readiness to give up the point on which his Lordship's opinions are known to be at variance with those of His Majesty. We believe it to be well understood that Lord G. has long entertained the same sentiments, though particular circumstances may have induced him to express them more publicly and more fully on this occasion. Besides, that supposition would leave us without one rational motive to account for that refusal to give the famous pledge to abstain from urging the Catholic claims, which was the immediate cause of the resignation of the late ministry ; and nothing can be more absurd than to imagine that, after being then with-

holden at the expence of office, it should now be voluntarily and anxiously pressed on the acceptance of the royal person, for the sole purpose of returning to place.

Confidence is often called a plant of tardy growth : but, when it is once firmly fixed, it cannot easily be eradicated. Though the only ground on which we prefer one party in the state to another is derived from the conduct and principles which they respectively pursue, we shall be found among the last to adopt the growing doctrine that all our public men are equally unworthy of the good opinion of the country. The spirit evinced by Lord Grenville on several important occasions ought now to acquit him of every mean and interested motive : yet we cannot help regarding with unfeigned surprise, and deep regret, a line of conduct which appears to us unnecessarily to have clogged with unexpected difficulties a great, important, and indispensable measure ; which will discourage the lukewarm, scare the timorous, and divide the well-disposed ; while it furnishes arguments to ignorance, motives to hypocrisy, and a plausible excuse at least for the continuance of degrading persecution.

ART II. *The Nature and Extent of the Demands of the Irish Roman Catholics fully explained*; in Observations and Strictures on a Pamphlet entitled, "A History of the Penal Laws against the Irish Roman Catholics." By Patrick Duigenan, LL.D. M.P. 8vo. pp. 247. 7s. Boards. Stockdale jun. 1810.

WE had some thoughts of including our review of this work in the same article with that of Lord Grenville's letter : till we found that the great question is taken up by the two writers in such dissimilar points of view, that they required a separate consideration. Another essential difference, also, actuated our decision. Howmuchsoever we may regret that the former tract has been composed, it bears on the face of it evident marks of being the production of a man of sense, a man of letters, and a gentleman. As to the work of Dr. Duigenan, — — *nous verrons*.

When Mr. Parnell's "History of the Penal Laws," to which allusion is made in the present title-page, and of which this volume is advertised in the newspapers as a *refutation*, fell under our critical notice \*, we expressed considerable doubt whether William the Third was justly charged by that gentleman with a deliberate violation of the articles of Limerick. That monarch's love of toleration and liberty would probably have

\* See M. R. Vol. lvi. p. 200.

prompted him to carry those stipulations into full effect, had not his intentions been defeated by the violent and inveterate hatred at that time entertained by the English of 'all parties, and more particularly by the Irish Whigs, against the Catholic religion: the latter body formed a majority in all the parliaments of Ireland during his reign; and, as the articles expressly referred to a parliamentary ratification, it may seem harsh to impute it as a crime to William that the two houses refused to carry some of them into full effect.

Dr. Duigenan may be supposed to read the *Monthly Review* occasionally; since he pays it (p. 221.) the most acceptable compliment which he is capable of conferring, by his manner of mentioning its 'well known political principles.' It would therefore be pardonable if we were to infer that he borrowed from us the observations above quoted, even though at the same time we should state that they form the only portion of this tract which can command the acquiescence of a reasonable mind for a single moment: while it is obvious that they affect in a very slight degree the general argument of Mr. Parnell, who is notwithstanding perfectly justified in his censures on the consent subsequently given by William to sanguinary statutes, enacted in violation of the spirit of that treaty on the faith of which the Catholic forces surrendered to his arms. It is still more clear that the successors of that monarch were bound in honour by his solemn engagements, contracted in the regal character; and that all the barbarous disabilities imposed by them on the mass of their Irish subjects were so many infractions of the honorary stipulations which were made by a predecessor, who transmitted the crown to them, subject to all its obligations, whether express or implied.

We must now proceed to a very unpleasant, but on this occasion a very necessary, portion of duty: not that any laboured censure of the work before us, or studied severity of condemnation, can be required, while its own argument, its own style, and its own spirit, so effectually *do its own business*, (to speak the *vulgar tongue*,) as to make the critical office little more than a disgusting sinecure.

Dr. D.'s fundamental position is, that the Irish *Romanists* are essentially and eternally in a state of warfare with the government under which they live; and that their sentiments of hostility are not produced by grievances and oppressions, but are the inevitable result of the faith which they profess. To this cause alone their early rebellions and their frequent revolts are to be ascribed; and while this continues, no indulgence can soften their hearts, no liberality can win their affections.

By this the common feelings of human nature are and must be so utterly perverted and extinguished within them, that the only difference of effect between a severe and a conciliating conduct towards them, on the part of their governors, is that the former may keep their mischievous propensities in wholesome subjection, while the latter may give a perilous scope to the exercise of their immortal malice. It was this savage animosity, and not their generous loyalty, that attached them to the last branch of the unfortunate house of Stuart; it was this alone which excited their resistance to the revolutionary title of King William; it was this alone which made them follow the ruined fortunes of James in exile and disgrace; and that heroic and devoted band, the well-known Irish brigade, which Whigs have pardoned, lamented, and admired\*, ought in fact to have been execrated as 'a pestilential congregation' of united Irishmen, actuated by inextinguishable hatred against the objects of the warmest and noblest objects of human attachment, liberty and their native soil.

It is not to be disputed that this author has more of consistency in his arguments, than is displayed by some eminent persons who travel to a certain distance with him on the same road. Into the absurd contradiction of granting all that could be effectual as a protection to our establishments, and withholding that which it is useless though galling to refuse, he is in no danger of falling, since he would grant nothing, and would revoke whatever has been granted. To the concessions of the present reign alone, he maintains, the recent disturbances in Ireland are to be traced: all was quiet, he says, while the Irish Popery code, improperly styled a *penal* code, continued in force; and since the troubles ensued after a partial repeal of the laws which composed it, the inference appears to him irresistible that those laws were essential to the tranquillity of Ireland; and that, in order to restore them to a secure foundation, the statutes of Anne ought immediately to be re-enacted.

According to this enlightened Doctor of Laws, nothing can be more libellous than to stigmatise those statutes as *penal*; he repeatedly asserts that they were 'only *remedial*, as to property; *merely* preventive of the acquisition of freehold estates by Romanists.' (p. 213.) In other places, he laboriously argues that, as property is the basis of political power, and political power cannot safely be intrusted to the enemies of the reigning religion, it is but a measure of prudent precaution, or rather indeed of necessary self-defence, to disarm the *Romanists* (as they are here always styled), by disabling them from

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\* See the first volume of Dalrymple's Memoirs.

acquiring landed property, and by placing all their hereditary possessions on the most perilous basis. It is a just and wise, and ultimately a humane policy, to offer the son a bribe for disinheriting the father; and to give the younger the rights of primogeniture, for the trifling sacrifice of honour, faith, conscience, filial duty, and brotherly affection! The defence of these laws is stated much at large in p. 108 :

‘ The scope of these Popery laws in Ireland, was to deprive Romanists of political power or weight, so as to prevent them from recommencing their rebellions by their political importance, all other means of prevention being found from woeful experience ineffectual. It is well known to every one, who had at all considered the nature of free popular governments, that the possession of landed property confers political power in such governments, it was therefore the object of the legislature, on the enactment of the two Popery acts in the second and eighth years of Queen Anne’s reign, to lessen the political power of Irish Romanists, by dividing the landed estates then in their seisin, into equal portions among their children, in case, the eldest son of a Romanist so seised, neglected, or declined to conform to the Protestant religion, within a year and a day after the death of his father; and to preserve the estate, subject to such reasonable portions for younger children as the Lord Chancellor should think proper, and to the payment of the father’s debts, to such eldest son, in case he conformed to the Protestant religion in the lifetime of his father; that is, to prevent his father from disinheriting him on account of his conformity. These laws also prohibited Romanists from purchasing or acquiring any freehold estate, or any estate in lands, save interests by leases for thirty-one years at a rent not less than two-thirds of the real yearly value of the land. If a Romanist, however, should attempt to procure any other landed interest, he could hold it only for the benefit of the first Protestant who should discover, and sue for it. Such was the scope of the Popery laws enacted in the reign of Queen Anne, and which have been so much complained of, and their provisions most pathetically declaimed against by Dr. Curry and Mr. Edmund Burke.

Dr. Duigenan’s consistency has been already mentioned with praise; yet it does not appear to have pushed his argument to its full extent. Property is truly said by him to confer political power: but there is another possession still more essential to its exercise,—the possession, we mean, of physical existence; and while this blessing was still preserved to the *Romanists* by the blind compassion of their too-indulgent rulers, we fear that it would be fraught with the more danger to the government, in proportion to the number of those very privations and persecutions which were supposed to render it harmless. That the Doctor was not deterred by the same weak and impolitic sensibility from supplying this imperfection in his argument, the following passages will sufficiently prove, though many more might be cited. The first is a fine metaphor :

‘ If a man viewed a human creature lying almost naked on a small truss of straw, bound down to the floor by heavy galling chains, and fed on bread and water : or if he saw another wretch bound with ropes, laid on a filthy hurdle, and in this manner dragged through a town to execution, he would no doubt be affected with great compassion for their sufferings, and, if an orator, could paint them in very pathetic language ; but if the auditors knew him to be fully informed that one was a desperate maniac, and the other a most cruel and flagitious murderer, robber, or traitor, his declamations against the misery of their situation would excite only derision or contempt.’

The termination of the unfortunate rebellion in 1798, by the lenity of Marquis Cornwallis, is related in terms of regret :

‘ The Protestants of Ireland were taken by surprise, not imagining that the rebellion was so near explosion ; however, they quickly flew to their arms, and, with the assistance of the regular Irish army, under the orders of Lord Camden, they suppressed the rebellion, after many severe conflicts, in the course of one month. The famous battle of Vinegar Hill, which in fact extinguished the formidable blaze of the insurrection, and left nothing remaining but expiring embers, was fought at the distance of sixty miles from Dublin, on the very day that the Marquis landed in that city from England, the rebels were dispersed in various directions, and in small scattered bodies over the country, and hunted like wild beasts by the army and the Protestant yeomanry. Proclamations were, immediately on the arrival of the Marquis, published by government, offering pardon to all the rebels who would submit and surrender their arms ; a few of the leading rebels were apprehended, and executed, before the Marquis arrived, but very few afterwards ; in short, pardon, and every kind of favour, were generally bestowed by government on the insurgents, notwithstanding their atrocious conduct ; and every method used to stifle the voice of the Protestant loyal subjects, crying out for vengeance on the murderers of their fathers, husbands, wives, children, and relations.’

The same event is mentioned in similar terms in another passage :

‘ Lord Cornwallis was a nobleman of great honour and humanity, and seemed to have been sent over by the ministry, to suppress the rebellion, not by arms, but by clemency ; for his very first measure was a proclamation of pardon to the rebels on very easy conditions, when nothing remained to be done with them, but to hunt their dispersed fugitive parties through the country and bring them to justice. This rebellion demonstrated the impolicy of the repeal of the Popery laws ; whilst they were in force the nation was quiet, and for a longer space of time than it ever had been before : when repealed, rebellion raised its hydra head.’

Is it worth while to inform Mr. Parnell, — who is better employed, we hope, in his parliamentary duties, than to be  
able



able to read this most exquisite production,—that his history of the penal laws is complimented by the violent abuse of it which is here repeated in every page;—that it is designated by this courteous author as a ‘rude, indecent, and scurrilous invective;’—that his accusations are utterly groundless, and the mere effusions of *Romish* hatred and malignity;—that ‘his conclusions are in themselves so ridiculous, that they need no refutation, but *risum teneatis* is the only answer they merit;’—that ‘such absurdity was never before introduced into any publication either antient or modern;’—and that he exhibits ‘a rare specimen of *Romish* modesty, logic, and regard to truth?’ Or can it be necessary to inform the reader, that *Mr. Edmund Burke* is held up to the indignation of all good Protestants, as an Irish *Romish* agent, who *threw a film* over the eyes of *Mr. Pitt*, and produced a *papomania* in the English ministry; and that his ‘ridiculous rant (the ridiculous rant of *Edmund Burke*!) was too precious a morsel to be omitted in this acrimonious pamphlet, styled a History?’ Or can any man of common sagacity fail to anticipate *Dr. D.’s* declaration ‘that the cry against the Talents ministry that *the church is in danger* was a just cry;’ or his statement that the *Grenville* family, on their exclusion from power, ‘immediately joined the Jacobin democratic class?’

We rejoice that this tract has been published. While the opinions expressed in it continue to be cherished by any part of our fellow-subjects, it is fit that they should be announced and exposed. The champions of reason and humanity will also be taught that the war with bigotry is not yet at an end, and that their frequent and splendid victories have not yet rendered it safe for them to slumber on their arms. We rejoice still more that such a cause as intolerance should have found such an advocate as *Dr. Duigenan*. Those who conscientiously cling to expiring prejudices, if they possess good sense, good taste, or the spirit of Christianity, will peruse these pages, and renounce those prejudices with disgust and shame:—but never let it be forgotten that the author of this work was appointed an Irish privy counsellor\*, at a period when judgment and moderation were peculiarly requisite in the government of Ireland; nor let the names of *Duigenan* and *Perceval* fail to go down to posterity in well-asserted and indissoluble union.

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\* The modesty of *Dr. Duigenan* has not permitted him to style himself *Right Honourable* in his title-page.

ART. III. *The Veto.* "A commentary on the *Grenville Manifesto*, by Cornelius Keogh, Esq. (Late of Mount Jerome in Ireland), a Catholic, and a Member of some Literary Societies. 8vo. pp. 91. 3s. 6d. Sherwood and Co. 1810.

THE celebrated letter from Lord Grenville to the Earl of Fingall is here exposed to a much severer criticism than that of the Monthly Review. The proposal for vesting in the King of England an effectual negative on the appointment of bishops is resented by Mr. Keogh as an attempt to appoint His Majesty *Pope of Ireland*; Lord Howick's bill is ridiculed as an instance of 'cunning over-reaching itself,'—as a mere 'clap-trap' with the Irish Catholics,—as a 'trick' worthy of general derision, and of infinitely less importance, both in itself and in its consequences, than 'the O. P. hubbub in Covent Garden;' while the parliamentary advocates of the Catholics are unjustly and ungratefully traduced as not merely lukewarm but treacherous, and sordid motives are profusely attributed to all their proposals for conciliation. This rancorous spirit cannot be too strongly reprobated. Though we must acknowledge that the late disappointment of the Catholic hopes affords much reason for complaint, and may authorize some degree of suspicion and distrust, the language of Mr. Keogh appears to us in every point of view unjustifiable, as well as mischievous. Even if we believed that this gentleman spoke the sentiments of the entire Catholic body, we would still recommend the repeal of all existing disabilities, as a measure of justice: but we should really doubt of its success as a means of reconciliation.

We select one or two comments on detached passages of Lord Grenville's letter, in which the author displays acuteness, and enforces truth, with less offensive asperity of manner:

"*Circumstances* as this question now is, (says Lord G.) both in England and in Ireland, it is on the contrary my deliberate opinion, that no motion, grounded on your petition, could at this time, in any hands, *certainly not in mine*, be brought forward without great and permanent disadvantage to its object."—

'And whose is the fault, if those *circumstances* now exist? Lord Grenville, in concurrence with Mr. Pitt, originated the *Veto* in 1799; and after a lapse of ten years, Lord Grenville, abetted by M. M. Grattan and Ponsonby, revives the dormant demand. He first dupes England and parliament into the belief that the Catholics are ready to tender the *Veto*; and next he sends to apprise the astonished Catholics that parliament and England expect their acquiescence in his arrangement!

"This opinion is founded, (he adds) not only on the present known dispositions of government and parliament, but also on the *unexpected difficulties*

difficulties which have arisen in Ireland, on the impressions which they may too probably create, and on the embarrassments which they unavoidably produce."

' This is at best but an attempt to excuse delinquency by ignorance. Before he risked the Catholic cause and his own character, Lord Grenville should have first ascertained the sentiment of the people of Ireland. How can he pretend to rule over a country to whose opinions he is, by his own account, an utter stranger ?

" It would be an *invidious task* for me to recapitulate in *this place*, the transactions of the last three years, or to describe the spirit and temper, *the language and the conduct of His Majesty's ministers* towards your body ; nor would it become me to censure, though I may be permitted to lament, *the decisions of the legislature*."

' What is it that Lord Grenville is here lamenting ? Why surely the several *decisions of the legislature* against unconditional emancipation. Was there ever a paper so strangely at variance with itself ?

These appear to us to be real inconsistencies, and they are well and strongly pointed out. Why did the author take pains to indispose his readers to receive conviction from his arguments, by mingling them with so much empty, vulgar, and irritating declamation ?

Under the head of ' Anticipated Ultimatum of Ireland,' it is contended that, inasmuch as the nomination to ecclesiastical vacancies was deposited by the laity in the hands of the clergy, this trust, if ever renounced by the church, must revert to the people ; and a POPULAR VETO is proposed as answering at once the objection to foreign influence, and obviating the danger of raising a Protestant to the head of a Catholic church and intrusting the executive power with a large indirect influence. This proposal appears to deserve discussion, and was perhaps in the contemplation of Mr. Grattan when, in the House of Commons, he alluded to *other measures* that would be equivalent to the Royal Negative. Lord Grenville also strongly disclaims a pertinacious adherence to the *forms* of the securities suggested ; — and yet no sooner is one particular mode of security declined by the Catholic body, than his Lordship positively refuses to make *any* motion in their behalf. Another inconsistency may be noticed ; for, though Lord G. admits that the Catholics have no common organ, and do not act as a corporate body, he yet requires their general assent to his demand, as a condition for granting what he has long proclaimed it to be the height of injustice to deny. In truth, the farther we proceed in considering this question, the more striking, in our judgment, are the inconsistencies which we encounter, and the greater are our perplexity and mortification at the obstacles which are ever arising against the pleas of justice and of policy.

**ART. IV.** *The Natural History of British Fishes*, including scientific and general Descriptions of the most interesting Species, and an extensive Selection of accurately finished coloured Plates, taken entirely from original Drawings, purposely made from the Specimens in a recent State, and for the most Part while living. By E. Donovan, F.L.S. Author of the Natural Histories of British Birds, Insects, Shells, &c. 8vo. 5 Vols. 10l. 10s. Boards. Rivingtons.

**I**T is almost superfluous to state the formidable difficulties with which the ichthyologist has to contend, who undertakes to illustrate the history of any considerable portion of the finny tribes. The local predilections of some species, the comparative rarity of others, the change of hues induced by death or even by exposure to the air, and the latent residence of all the families, conspire to render our knowledge of them very imperfect and obscure. Undaunted, however, by such obstacles, Mr. Donovan, who had already eminently contributed to elucidate various departments of British Zoology, has boldly planned and executed the present splendid delineation of our native fishes. By personally visiting the coasts, and searching for his prototypes in their own element, he has been enabled not only to make several additions to the catalogues of his precursors, but to finish a hundred and twenty plates in a very unusual style of accuracy and elegance. Should the hasty critic pronounce the colouring to be in various instances overcharged, we must beg leave to remind him that a live fish in the water is a far more gaudy animal than a dead one out of it. Yet, while we applaud the general tenor of the author's design, and the manner in which it has been accomplished, we cannot refrain from intimating our regret that, in a work conducted on such a costly scale of embellishment, any wilful omissions should be tolerated. In all such cases, however, it is fair to let the author speak for himself.

At the commencement of the publication of this work in parts, the number of fishes in preparation was stated at about one hundred subjects. This extensive number, it was understood, included all the more common and abundant kinds of fishes, in addition to such a selection of the rarer species as had been procured through the exertions of the author and the medium of his friends. Possessing those, the work was undertaken with the design of being comprized in four volumes, or in the event of obtaining a further number, and the publication itself being favourably received, a fifth volume was intended to be added, in order to include the remainder. The addition of a fifth volume has been made accordingly; but in the course of time elapsed since the publication began, the author has so considerably enriched his collection with new acquisitions, that

'that even this was found inadequate to comprize the whole. The number of these latter additions amounts altogether to above thirty species; and in order to include them in the work without exceeding the utmost limits proposed, it was conceived advisable to exclude some of the most familiar fishes of our markets and insert those rarities in place of them. This will sufficiently explain the cause of several omissions of the common kinds of fishes in the present publication, and will unquestionably be considered a peculiar advantage, the work itself being thus rendered more copious in point of rare and beautiful subjects than it could otherwise have been. It must be concluded, that the omission of the *common Eel*, the *Salmon*, and the *Sprat*, is amply compensated by the insertion of the *Toothed Gillbead*, the *Opah*, and *Saury Pike*; and that the *Starry Ray* and *Salween Charr*, or the *Trumpet Fish*, and *variegated Sole*, will certainly be admitted as interesting equivalents for the *common Skate* and the *Herring*.'

Now, though Mr. Donovan may have felt himself fettered by his original proposals, or by his engagements with his publishers, we may be permitted to lament the exclusion of a single known species from a series which is so nearly complete; or which, at least, so nearly represents the hitherto ascertained amount of British Ichthyology. In the eye of the naturalist, nothing is despised because it is common; and the epithet *common* itself is of vague and relative import. The Eel, the Salmon, and the Herring, are frequently exhibited in some markets, and rarely, or not at all, in others; and the natural history of each is calculated to excite no common interest. At all events, faithful figures and detailed notices of the popular kinds, which have been avowedly suppressed, would form a very valuable supplement to the present publication; and we still indulge the hope that it will be executed, either by the present author, or by some individual equally well qualified for the task. Mr. Donovan has not favoured us with a list of the species which he has judged it proper to proscribe; but, on glancing at his table of contents, we are convinced that it is more numerous than it should have been. We are also of opinion that some space has been needlessly wasted by the frequent recurrence of the same generic characters.

The only other circumstance which detracts from the general character of the work is a want of correctness in the style, which the revisal of any literary friend would have easily obviated. Thus we have *iride* for *iris*, *Marsh* of Brandenburgh for *March*, 'even the soles found *does* not,' 'our enquiries *has*,' 'that *are* not been mentioned,' 'the fisheries *is*,' 'teeth *dis-tinguishes*,' 'the spear or harpoon *are*,' 'the characters *affords*,' 'acquiesced *to*,' 'the upper surface *are* marked,' 'the two sexes *of*

the common flounder is to be,' &c., 'the prevailing colours on the back is,' 'the lateral range of dusky spots are,' 'if the definition of the two fishes are,' 'neither of the above characters are remarkable vivid and beautiful,' &c. &c.

In virtue of a considerate exercise of his sagacity, the author has been induced to cancel a few articles which stood in the catalogue of British fishes, under the sanction of the most respectable names: for example; the *Labrus coquus* of Ray, the *Black Fish* of his friend Mr. Iago, and the *Lantern Sole* of Borlase, are not at present distinctly comprehended; while the *Long Fishing Frog* of Borlase is supposed to have been described from a dried specimen of the common Angler. The *Trifurcated Hake* of Pennant, having been described from a damaged skin of the forked species, can no longer claim a station in our Fauna. *Pleuronectes roseus* of Dr. Shaw is confidently stated to be only a variety of the common flounder; and the *Cyclopterus pyramidalis* of the same writer appears to be only a distorted individual of the common lump-sucker.

The figure of the Conger Eel is admirably executed, but its description and history would admit of extension. An enumeration of the characters by which it is discriminated from other eels, and an account of the serpentine manner in which it seizes its prey, of the combats which it occasionally maintains with the lobster and murey, and of the singular species of hydatids which Redi discovered in its viscera, would have imparted additional value to this popular and entertaining article.

The specimen of *Anarhichas* here exhibited is distinctly striped, and supposed to be only a variety of the *Lupus*. Mr. Donovan's critical annotations on this point, as on various others that are discussed in the course of his work, are characterized by good sense and judgment.

The Sand-eel is represented with a band of light green on the upper part of the body, which we do not recollect to have seen it exhibit, even under water; the predominant tinge being a silvery blue. This species, though very common in some districts of our shores, is unknown in others; and the few particulars which have been ascertained relative to its history might have been stated at length. Several of the older ichthyologists, relying too confidently on Salvian's figure, have erroneously described it as furnished with two dorsal fins instead of one, and as destitute of scales, merely because they are minute, and not obvious to common inspection. On some parts of the Dutch coast, it is raked up with harrows, drawn by oxen; and, although Sonnini characterizes it as a very meagre fish, and La Cépède asserts that its flesh is *peu délicate*,

it partakes so much of the oiliness of the common eel, that, in a dried state, it has been used by the lower classes of people as a rude sort of taper; and, when fried, or baked in a pye, it is much relished by some "knowing" Epicures.

Three species of *Gadus*, namely, *Callarias*, *Barbatus*, and *Minutus*, are excluded, though none of them is so generally known as to render the notice of it superfluous. *Gadus Callarias*, having been confounded with the young of the common Cod, and even with the Tersk of the north, particularly called for distinct illustration; and the *Minutus*, or poor, was the more worthy of being mentioned, because it is synonymous with the Capelin of the Newfoundland fishermen.

The description of the Gemmeous Dragonet, a very beautiful fish, is lame and scanty: but that of the sordid species is somewhat more satisfactory. The author's observations on the great and the common Weever appear to us to be decisive of their specific difference; and the same remark applies to his notices of the three and the five-headed Cod.—In disentangling the strange confusion which has long prevailed relative to the *Dorse* and *Tersk*, he has likewise rendered a very acceptable service to our northern ichthyologists: but it may be proper to note that the true Scottish name of *Gadus Brosme* is *Tusk*, and of *G. Callarias*, *Codling*, or *Red ware*.—In adverting to the different provincial appellations of the young of the Coal-fish, Mr. Donovan might have stated a ludicrous blunder, which, if allowed to pass without correction, would mislead the ignorant. Dr. Campbell, in his Political Survey of Great Britain, mentions the *Sillucks* and *Pillocks* (fry of the coal-fish) as a kind of small *whales*; adding that "the meaner sort of people live on their flesh, *such as it is*."

As a very favourable specimen of the valuable work now before us, we insert the account of *Blennius Pholis*, omitting the characters and synonyms.

'The Smooth Blenny is a very local fish. Willughby, Ray, and Ligo, speak of it as a species inhabiting the coast of Cornwall, where we are informed it is still observed occasionally, but is considered as a rare fish. Pennant mentions finding this fish on the coast of Anglesea as a remarkable incident, presuming, most probably, that it had not been noticed before on any other of the British coasts than that of Cornwall. "We discovered (says Mr. Pennant) this species in plenty, lying under the stones among the tang, on the rocky coasts of Anglesea, at the low-water mark. It was very active and vivacious, and would, by the help of its ventral fins, creep up between the stones with great facility. It bit extremely hard, and would hang to one's finger for a considerable time. It was very tenacious of life, and would live for near a day out of water." The exact situation in which Mr. Pennant found the Smooth Blenny in

such plenty, lies on the south side of the island, extending from the town of Beaumaris, along the skirts of Beaumaris bay, in a westerly direction through the straits of Menai to Bangor ferry, or Plas Newydd. This is not stated by Mr. Pennant himself, but was kindly communicated to us by the Rev. Hugh Davies, of Aber, who assisted that writer in collecting materials for his *British Zoology*. The time to which Mr. Pennant alludes, in which the Smooth Blenny was so abundant on this coast, is now above thirty years ago; and we may venture to affirm, on the assurance of Mr. Davies, and from our own repeated observation, that it is no longer an inhabitant of that part of the coast of Anglesea. The importance of the article tang, in which this species, and a variety of other littoral fishes, were known to secrete themselves, was then unknown; its utility in making glass, and [in] other useful arts, has been since discovered; and for the last ten or fifteen years, the tang has been so frequently gathered by the landholders, for those purposes, that the broods of those fishes are now destroyed. The same reason may be assigned, most probably, for the rarity of the Smooth Blenny on the Cornish coast at this time.

In a recent tour round the maritime parts of the island of Anglesea, we ascertained one satisfactory point, to the surprize of Mr. Davies, namely, that the Smooth Blenny still inhabits the shore of a small rocky extremity on the north-west side of the island. We discovered it among the recesses of the shelving rocks, close to the low-water mark, in a situation nearly opposite to the Skerry islands. In this spot we met with several specimens of various sizes, and had an opportunity of observing that in their natural state, it is almost impossible to find two fishes alike in their colours and variegations. Some were dark brown speckled, and spotted with black, and whitish; the irides of the eye a bright scarlet, and fins deep orange; others olivaceous clouded with grey, and some blackish, variously mottled. The most elegant among them is that selected for our figure, the pervading colour of which was a fine green, very beautifully marked with irregular and somewhat transverse marks of silvery white, changeable to yellowish, the belly silvery, and fins orange, spotted with greenish. One peculiarity in those fishes we could not avoid observing; throughout all the varieties, though so strikingly dissimilar in other respects, the eyes were scarlet, the lips white, or slightly tinged with reddish, and the extremities in every ray in the anal fin perfectly white. The posterior nostrils in all the specimens were tubular and fringed with small fibres, or ciliations, as Bloch observes, and which appears to be one of the most invariable characters of the species, though it was not so greatly protruded in any of the specimens we examined as the drawing of his fish represents. The teeth are of a slender form, long, and set remarkably close and even. Those fishes are so tenacious of life, that several of them lived more than thirty hours out of the sea. They subsist on small crabs, testaceous vermes, and other worms. — We also discovered this local species of Blennius on the coast of Pembroke-shire\*.

\* Vide Donov. Tour in South Wales, A. D. 1804.

\* The



'The general size of this fish varies from three to four or five inches. The dorsal fin, which extends from the nape close to the tail, is nearly divided into two parts, and contains in our selected specimen thirty-one rays; the pectoral fin twelve rays; ventral two; anal twenty; and caudal thirteen.'

The Viviparous Blenny is dispatched with unmerited brevity, and without any allusion to the curious particulars concerning the progressive developement of the young.

Under the article *Gobius Niger*, we looked for the correction of an inaccuracy which has crept into the descriptions of Willughby and de la Cépède; namely, the circumstance of a double row of teeth, whereas the fish has only one regular row of small sharp teeth, slightly bent backwards, and distinctly separated from one another; while, behind them, the rest are irregularly disposed in great numbers, extending even to the inside of the throat.

The history of the Shad is agreeably detailed, and a separate article of some length is allotted to the *White-bait*; which we may now regard as only the fry of the former. Though we cannot make room for all that Mr. Donovan has advanced in confirmation of this opinion, we deem it incumbent on us to quote the ensuing paragraph:

'Every circumstance considered, we cannot avoid concluding, that much of the prevailing errors respecting the *White-bait* has originated from the incautious observations of Mr. Pennant on this subject;—that this author never saw the *White-bait*; and that succeeding Naturalists, too implicitly relying upon his observations, have been inadvertently precipitated into those errors which the most casual examination of the fish in question would have enabled them to detect. If, however, contrary to this suggestion, Mr. Pennant ever did examine the fish, his specimens must have been either in a most imperfect state, or his investigation of it unpardonably hasty and negligent. His figure conveys no just idea of the fish, and his critical animadversions are laboriously intricate and defective. He tells us among other particulars, that the *White-bait* "neither belongs to the Shad nor the Sprat, as is evident from the number of branchiostegous rays, which in those are eight, in this (the *White-bait*) only three." This remark is incorrect; the branchiostegous rays were uniformly eight in number in at least fifty specimens we examined, with the view of ascertaining the fact exactly. The fish represented in our plate as just emerging above the surface of the water to seize its prey, has the gill-membrane expanded, in order to render those branchiostegous rays apparent. The number of those rays determines at once that it cannot be of the *Cyprinus* genus, which is distinguished by having only three such rays, instead of eight. Mr. Pennant further remarks, that "it is impossible to class this fish with certainty," but in what respect this ambiguity consists

sists is not for us to say. The White-bait certainly possesses every criterion of the species, as evidently as the parent, or full-grown fish. Its outline is the same, the fins are alike; it exhibits the same serrations on the abdomen, and cleft on the snout; and what is even remarkable in a fish of this small size, the lateral range of dusky spots are perceptible through the beautiful silver scales, as in the larger fish. It exhibits in a word a most perfect but diminished figure of the Common Shad, not a solitary character excepted.'

Among the branchiostegous Fishes, we may venture to recommend the articles *Tetradon stellatus*, *Centriscus scolopax*, *Cyclopterus Liparis*, and *C. Montagu*, to the particular attention of our readers.—Of the Chondropterygian division, fourteen subjects are specified and delineated. Of these, *Squalus Cornubicus* is proved to be the same with the *Beaumaris Shark*; and *Raja Miraletus*, or *Mirror Ray*, which is well described, suggests the following remarks.

Although we present this as the *Raja Miraletus* of Linnæus with perfect confidence, it is not without some hesitation, at least, that we can offer it as a distinct species. In every respect, except the ocellar spot on the wings, it perfectly agrees with the Homerling Ray, and may possibly prove, on further examination of other specimens, to be only a *lusus*, or remarkable variety of that fish. We have certainly seen vast numbers of the Homerling without ever once observing any mark similar to this upon them, but the same character has occurred to our notice in another species of Ray, the Common Skate.—Our suspicions of its not being a genuine species were first excited by perceiving among a number of the skate of various sizes, several of the smaller ones marked exactly in the same manner. They were evidently skate from their general figure, from the larger spines on the tail being disposed down the middle in a single series, and the uniform blackness of the lower surface, the dingy aspect of which is assumed from the innumerable small black specks with which the skin in that part is dotted. A large skate afterwards occurred, in which the same annular mark was very observable; and from that time for some years past becoming more attentive to this circumstance, we have perceived it in the Skate more or less conspicuous in every stage of growth. This we believe has not been hitherto mentioned by writers; the fact is, however, certain, and clearly proves that those ocellated spots are not peculiar to *Raja Miraletus*, and consequently insufficient to prove it a species. In every other respect, as before observed, it agrees with the Homerling, and upon the whole may prove, as already suggested, to be only a variety of that species. It is certainly a very remarkable and curious fish, whether it be a variety, or a species, and highly worthy of a place in the present work.'

We shall close our extracts with the character and description of *Raja Radiata*, or *Starry Ray*; which will, doubtless, prove highly gratifying to our ichthyological readers:

• Spines

'Spines on the upper surface, large and divergent into radiated processes at the base : a single series of large subconic spines down the back and tail.

' This is a new species of Ray, and one the most singular of its tribe at present known. The figure in the annexed plate represents this fish in its natural size. It was caught on the north coast of Britain, and obligingly communicated to us by Mr. Statchbury, of the Old Jewry, London.

' As the individual specimen above mentioned is the only one of its kind that has occurred to our observation, we are unable to determine if this curious species ever attains to a larger size ; though we should rather suspect it may. Whether, however, it be in the young or adult state, it is obviously of a species not hitherto described by any author, and is therefore to be regarded as an interesting addition to the Raja genus ; and to the British Fauna in particular.

' Should this fish grow to a large size, it must become a powerful and formidable animal. The whole of the upper surface is aculeated, or beset with spines of a small size, interspersed with others which are much larger in proportion to the magnitude of the fish than is observable in any other of the Ray tribe. The greater spines are of two kinds ; those with a large subconic furrowed base, and such as are distinguished by their remarkable radiated processes, divergent at the base as from a common center, and assuming altogether a singular stellated appearance. Those with a conic base are disposed chiefly in a single series along the back and tail ; and the others, which are radiated at the base, are scattered over the surface of the wirts : the latter mentioned spines are extremely curious, and appear to be entirely peculiar to this particular species.'

It was our intention to have entered more minutely into the analysis of the present publication : but so many other works press on our notice, that we feel ourselves constrained to dismiss it with a reflection, which naturally arises from every laudable exertion of which the object is to bring us acquainted with the productions of British soil and of British seas. In so far as the vigour and permanency of a state can be predicted from physical appearances, that country bids fairest for wealth and independence, which most abounds in the elements of subsistence and industry ; and he is the true patriot, who explores and displays the intrinsic resources of the nation to which he belongs. At a crisis in which our inveterate enemy labours to impede our intercourse with foreign states, it is pleasing to remark that the attention of the discerning and enlightened portion of the community begins to be directed to our domestic capacities of prosperity. Facts relative to the composition, history, and uses of every article of native produce now form a more prominent feature in our systems of education than in times past ; literary journals and encyclopedias are daily multiplied ; and the practical results of elaborate

inquiries are stated in language which is intelligible to the many. While we hail this liberal and generous tendency of the public mind, we should labour, each in his sphere, to obey its impulse and to assist its progression.

ART. V. *Letters on Literature, Taste, and Composition*, addressed to his Son, by George Gregory, D.D. late Vicar of West Ham. 2 Vols. 12mo. 12s. Boards. R. Phillips.

THE translation of Rollin's *Belles Lettres*, and Blair's *Lectures*, are the only popular works in our language which are sufficiently comprehensive to embrace all the objects of a general view of literature, and at the same time sufficiently concise to be accessible to that large portion of youthful readers, to whom such books are peculiarly calculated to be serviceable. These works are too well known to require more than a cursory notice on the occasion of reviewing the similar production now before us, which was the last composition that its respectable author lived to complete; and which, as the editor, in his short but interesting preface, truly says, 'contains the result of various observations, made by a vigorous and cultivated mind, upon different subjects of taste and literature.' We are indeed disposed to value the observations of Dr. Gregory on all subjects; and we can scarcely recommend the present publication too strongly to classical students, as a manual of good sense and good taste, and as an excellent coadjutor to the abovementioned authors in the task of elegant instruction.

Dr. Gregory begins by a philosophical, but popular and agreeable, analysis of those principles of association, whence we derive the pleasure which is excited in all cultivated minds by the study of the fine arts. His remarks on this phenomenon of mind may be considered as happily illustrative of Stewart's admirable speculations on the same point; and we heartily wish that all metaphysical disquisitions were conducted as luminously, and in a manner as entertaining, as they have been managed by these writers and some others of our contemporaries, particularly that original and acute reasoner, Dr. Reid.—The author's introductory remark on the inquiring spirit of the times is worthy of transcription:

'We live in an age when almost every thing is artificial; when not only rules are proposed for the performance of almost every action connected with social life, but when the grounds and principles on which those rules are founded constitute an object of anxious inquiry. Men have long agreed in regarding some things as pleasing; but not satisfied with this, we are led to inquire whence they have derived  
their

their power to please, and on what principle in human nature it is that certain appearances, sounds, or ideas are delightful to the human mind.

The Doctor then endeavours to explain this principle; continuing his inquiry by some judicious remarks on *Style*, on the sources of fine Composition, on the Sublime, the Pathetic, and the Ludicrous. He next enters on a more particular detail of the component parts of Eloquence, and an examination equally clear and convincing of the essentials of good writing. Under this branch of his subject, less amusing than the former, but equally useful, he comes to the consideration of Language, the perspicuity, purity, and harmony of Sentences, and all the numerous graces of Composition. Here we meet with some masterly observations on the different usages and figures of Speech, the Comparison, the Simile, the Allusion, the Metaphor, and the Allegory; and on Ornament and Amplification. We have also an insight into the art, humble but indispensable, which teaches the rhetorician and the poet "to name their tools;" with well chosen instances of catachresis, antithesis, metonymy, synecdoche, periphrasis, personification, apostrophe, hyperbole, and irony. It is not the least praise of this necessarily dry and grammatical portion of the Doctor's work, that he has contrived to unite the profitable and the pleasing; and that, while his example of each usage and figure makes his young reader fully comprehend its purport and application, it also interests him in the subject-matter which is proposed to his examination.

Apparently glad to escape from the trammels of grammar, the Doctor now advances to a more enlarged view of composition. The several methods of analysis and synthesis in a logical discourse are well explained and duly appreciated: the different kinds of oratory, that of the senate, of the bar, and of the pulpit, are sensibly contrasted; and the rise and progress of eloquence is described with an equal degree of accuracy and liveliness. Such are the general contents of the first volume. The second begins with a striking comparison of the difficulties attending the perfect composition of an argumentative or oratorical discourse, and those which must be encountered by the historian. The narrative-style is assuredly the most difficult of attainment. Dr. G. appears to us truly to assert its rarity of perfection, and with the same justness of opinion to assign the causes for that rarity:

'It is difficult to form and pursue a lucid order and arrangement; it is difficult, out of the number of circumstances which will crowd upon him, to select those only which are important and striking; to know where to be brief and where to be minute; to distinguish the

lights and the shades ; to see on what he ought to enlarge, and what he should cursorily pass over. It is exceedingly difficult to avoid a flat and monotonous tone ; to give spirit, animation, and interest to a mere recital of facts ; and that, when the writer composes not under the influence of passion, or the ardour of controversy, which in narrative is seldom the case.

‘ I know not whether I shall express myself clearly or not ; but I feel that, in didactic or argumentative discourses, the words arrange themselves more easily in sentences, more in the manner of colloquial discussion. In narrative the writer scarcely knows where to stop, or how to round a sentence, which may perhaps be in part the reason for the long periods of Clarendon, and some other historians. It is difficult too to draw the picture : for narrative is a picture in words, so that it shall be full, clear and impressive, and keep awake the reader's attention through the whole.

‘ The difficulties which I have now enumerated will, in some measure, anticipate the rules for narrative composition ; if indeed any rules can be laid down for governing the fancy, and directing the taste. Perspicuity, it will be easily seen, is the first excellence of narrative. The impression must be clear and vivid. Whether the subject will admit of ornament or not is a remote consideration compared with this indispensable quality. On this account, the writer of even an extended history should take care to have a clear and comprehensive view of the subject in his mind, at least to a given period. He should see it as a picture or a drama before his eyes, previous to his beginning to compose. If he has this view of the subject before him, he will easily, if he has judgment and taste, distinguish the parts or circumstances which should be treated in detail, from those which should be transiently glanced at, or perhaps wholly omitted.

‘ To have a just and comprehensive view of his subject previously formed, (at least to a certain extent as to the order of time,) will enable an author to write with vivacity, and to interest his readers, for he will describe within a shorter compass, and in a manner less dull and tedious than the person who transcribes every circumstance from a note-book ; and the fancy will have a more unbounded range, and be able to throw in more of ornament and eloquence.

‘ As in the style of narrative, perspicuity is the first object, an author should be careful that every sentence may present a distinct image, for nothing confuses more than when several circumstances are blended or complicated one with another. Yet, for the sake of harmony, and to avoid a monotonous tone, which is a very common vice of narration, the sentences must not be too short. I have been told that Mr. Gibbon was in the habit of composing while he walked about his room ; and that he never committed a sentence to paper till it was perfectly formed in his mind. The purest, best, and most expressive terms should be chosen for narrative. Many of the vulgarisms which are allowed in the oratorical effusions of Mr. Burke, would not be endured in narrative, nor would he have introduced them. In the style of oratory we expect the flights and eccentricities of fancy : we can forgive something that may disgust where there is much to please ; but in that of narrative we expect an even flow, not turbid or impure.

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\* The degree of ornament or figure to be employed must depend in a great measure on the subject; but in general it is safer to attempt too little in the way of ornament than too much. Nothing tends more to confuse a narrative than a style too florid; though figurative language, sparingly and judiciously introduced, occasionally gives animation. The comparison is a figure too flat and formal to suit with narrative, and almost the only figure which may be freely employed is the metaphor. But even metaphors, when introduced, should be easy and natural, for recondite or remote allusions perplex the mind, and withdraw the attention from the subject. They must not be common-place neither, for nothing renders a style so frigid as common place ornaments. But after all, on this as on every practical subject of literature, I must have recourse to a maxim which I recommended very early in our correspondence. The attentive and studious perusal of the best writers in this, as well as in every other department, will effect infinitely more than any abstract rules or observations whatever. Read carefully the most approved narrators; mark their manner of bringing events and circumstances before your view; observe their mode of connecting them; the compass and turn of their periods. You will see that there is nothing abrupt; nothing either defectively terminated, or violently or harshly introduced; or where there is a deviation from the thread or course of the story, the reader's mind is prepared by a short introduction or apology, so that the smoothness and simplicity of the narrative shall not be materially interrupted. As you will have to write in English, I would advise you to study the best models in your own language, for none has better writers of narrative. It will also be an improving exercise, if, after having read a long passage, and made yourself master of the facts, you close the book, and try to narrate them yourself, when the comparison will shew you your own defects, and enable you to avoid them on a future occasion. For the grave kind of narration examine the style of Robertson, Hume, Gibbon, Goldsmith\*, and Dr. Hawkesworth's *Voyages*; for the lighter and more familiar kinds, the short narratives in the *Spectator*, especially those of Mr. Addison; some of a similar nature in the *Rambler* of Dr. Johnson; and the *Adventurer* of Dr. Hawkesworth, will afford you unexceptionable specimens.'

After this deservedly ample quotation, we must be excused from more than a general survey of the rest of the volume. One subject, indeed, we must reserve for particular examination; which, as it is the last, is perhaps also the most important in the work;—and we shall state some points of taste in which we differ from the Doctor. It would be merely copying his table of contents, to mention the whole number of authors, antient and modern, whose merits he has endeavoured (and we think, generally, with complete success) to appreciate. In the

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\* \* The *History of England*, in a series of *Letters from a Nobleman to his Son*, is an admirable specimen of historical language, sufficiently familiar, without any loss of dignity.'

department of history, of annals, and of biography, no eminent writer of any age or country is left unnoticed. In that of voyages and travels, he is equally copious and judicious. His remarks on epistolary writing are peculiarly deserving of attention. A brief, but by no means superficial account of poetry follows: its various descriptions are correctly classified; and the authors who have excelled in each are ranked according to their most legitimately acknowledged precedence. Dr. Gregory indeed rarely offends against the decisions of established taste; and he commands the high praise of being original without being paradoxical. "*Difficile est propriè communia dicere*"—or "it is difficult to make common remarks with effect," or rather "to make them your own,"—is a truth known and confessed by every person; yet the merit of making such remarks is exactly the merit at which every body is aiming, and which none but men of genius can attain.

The subject to which we alluded, as reserved for our more particular discussion in these volumes, is the 'Use of Classical Learning.' This is a question which has been lately agitated by some low fugitive writers, and in some low debating societies, in a very different manner from that sober and manly style of inquiry which in former times it has obtained, and which in all times it deserves. To hear a pert and ignorant but self-sufficient disputant arguing without argument, and reasoning without reason, on a matter of such importance as the education of our youth, would excite the spleen of critics less experienced in the perverseness of the human head and heart than ourselves; but we view such a disputant with a calm and unmixed sensation of pity. Were it possible to imagine that any one who was better qualified should take this side of the question, that in his attack on classical instruction he betrayed the advantages which he had himself derived from that instruction, that the vivacity of his assault was imparted to him by the benefactress whom he assaults, and that the crime of *felo de se* was in this instance coupled with the sin of ingratitude,

"Who would not laugh if such a man there be?"

"Who would not weep if *Anicus* were he?"

—but we throw such a supposition from our bosoms!

Ignorant also as evil-spirited must be those censors of education in the present age, whom we have occasionally heard talking of the exclusive attention which is paid to classical literature at our universities. It has formed perhaps a more reasonable subject of complaint, that at one University the mathematics engross too large instead of too little a portion of the



the probationary years of study; and that academical honours are unequally distributed to the proficient in classical knowledge. We enter not into this question:—but it is not only at one English university that classical literature is unjustly accused of absorbing the attention of the students. At the other, particularly of late years, a due degree of honour has been paid to the mathematics. When we add to these glaring facts, the advantages for students in every department of the sciences, as well as in every branch of literature, which are offered by the numerous lectures, (not perhaps so numerous as the professorships,) that are read at each University,—when we lay these circumstances together,—when we consider these positive and universally disseminated truths,—the argument to which we refer is undeserving of farther contest, since it can be founded only on the ignorance or the misrepresentation of all these facts.

As to the state of education at our public schools, we are aware that classical instruction there forms the principal object. The question of expediency in this case naturally divides itself into two parts. First;—Is it necessary, for the attainment of a thorough knowledge of Greek and Latin, to devote so many years to the study of those languages as are allotted to them at our public schools? Secondly, If necessary, is it desirable; is the end worthy of the means applied to attain it?

The first part of this question will be distinctly answered in the affirmative by many competent judges; who maintain that, allowing due time for the prosecution of other studies, (and be it remembered that classical study, although the *principal*, is far from being the *only* object of attention in our public schools,) and for proper recreation, it is not possible for the generality of boys to become scholars, even in this confined sense of the word, in a shorter period. It is considered, also, that this is a fact capable of being ascertained with some degree of precision.

The second part of the question, namely, whether it be worth while to employ so many years on classical study, will admit of greater doubt in the reply; but that it *is* worth while for all boys who are to be educated for the learned professions can scarcely be denied. To assert that the student of law, physic, or divinity, should be ignorant of the learned languages, while so much of collateral science is yet wrapped up in those languages, or at all events rests on their cultivation, is surely a self-evident absurdity. To maintain that, where argument and eloquence are necessary, the argument and the eloquence of the antients should be unknown, or can be unknown with impunity by the brightest genius, would be to forget the flow of

rhetoric which was clearly derived from Cicero by a late illustrious statesman ; and to unlearn the practical lessons of political wisdom, which were impressed on all our minds by the borrowed if not improved logic of Demosthenes, as it lived again in the language of that statesman's illustrious rival.—Those, then, of our youth, who are destined to speak to their countrymen from the bar, the senate, or the pulpit, must approach the fountains of antient learning. There they must imbibe those inspiring draughts of genius, taste, and eloquence, by which they may hereafter adorn, defend, and re-animate their native land.

The human understanding, we have no hesitation in averring, must be improved by the study of its most excellent productions : its perceptive and reasoning powers must thus be quickened and strengthened ; and when we add to these advantages the fascination of classical authors, and that proneness of the mind to learn the soonest what pleases it the most, we surely cannot wish to abridge the cultivation of studies which mingle so much profit with so much delight. It is contended by Dr. Gregory, however, that society is now in a very different state from that in which it appeared at the revival of letters. Then, classical literature was not only ornamental, but actually essential, to science. ' All the science, (he observes) all the history, all the taste which existed, were locked up in the volumes of the antients : there was no access to any branch of knowledge but by this path ; it was necessary to be introduced to this enlightened school, or to remain in ignorance and barbarism.'—' It would be disingenuous to deny, in the present state of literature, that it is possible for a person not classically educated, to make a proficiency in any department of literature or science.'—Leaving the sciences for a moment, we must assert that, although such a person may make a proficiency in literature, he will not in any species of composition rival those whose taste is corrected and whose style is improved by the study of the antients. Would Dr. Gregory have asserted that any one of those female novelists, (highly meritorious as we allow them to be,) whom he has mentioned, is equal to Fielding ? Would he have asserted that some acquaintance with the classics would not have pruned the redundant prolixity of Richardson, and added the charms of style to that most pathetic, though sometimes most prosing, of writers ?—Surely not ;—and if neither the novels of a Burney nor the dramas of a Cowley and Inchbald, neither the poetry of a Seward and a Williams nor the history of a Macaulay, (excellent as many of the compositions of these writers are, and truly deserving of the praise which Dr. Gregory bestows on them,) can be compared

compared with productions of a similar kind by writers who have enjoyed the benefit of a classical education,—where, excepting in the plays of the ever-to-be-expected and unrivalled Shakspeare, shall we look for any effusions of unclassical pens which can be so compared?

As to the aid which a learned education lends to *science*, we cannot agree with Dr. Gregory that an acquaintance with the classics is unnecessary for any clergyman, any lawyer, or any physician. Although the whole body of divinity, law, and physic (or at least the material part of it) is perhaps to be found in our native language, still we think that the divine who is wholly ignorant of Greek and Latin will not be many degrees above the itinerant preacher, either in the matter or the manner of his discourse: that the lawyer, who is thus ignorant, will rarely soar above the reputable pettifogger; and that the physician will only by courtesy be distinguished from the quack. This, however, is a wide field for argument; and we must leave those of our readers, who are so disposed, to decide the question between Dr. Gregory and ourselves. He, indeed, in a subsequent part of his chapter on the 'Use of Classical Learning,' fully substantiates the claim which that learning possesses, to the respect of mankind. We shall briefly enumerate the several points of utility which he justly ascribes to the cultivation of the Belles Lettres.

In the first place, he allows that 'a complete and enlarged, a scientific acquaintance with the principles of grammar, is hardly to be obtained without the knowledge of some other language than our own.' He adds, as is strictly true, 'the grammar of the Latin language is more regular than that of any other; and it is therefore admirably calculated to initiate young persons in that necessary science.'

Secondly, he remarks that 'a similar advantage, flowing also from classical education, is a general knowledge of the structure of language. The Greek is so copiously, so curiously compounded, so admirably adapted to supply every want of the mind with respect to expression, affords the happiest instance of human art and invention in the construction of language; it is impossible to study it without perceiving our ideas enlarged on this curious subject.'

Thirdly, 'another use, not less obvious, results from an accurate acquaintance with the etymology of words;' and the technical language of the sciences, we may add, is exclusively of classical origin. On this head, much might be urged:—but we content ourselves with Dr. Gregory's confession 'that accuracy in writing is, almost exclusively, the characteristic

of

of those who can boast some acquaintance with the languages of antiquity.'

Fourthly, 'it is some commendation of almost any pursuit, to say, that it affords us an elegant and an innocent amusement.' To his quotation from Horace,

————— " *Nil*  
*Posces ante diem librum cum lumine,*" &c.

the Doctor might have added Cicero's beautiful eulogium on letters,—"*pernoctant nobiscum, peregrinantur, rusticantur.*" Let not the mere English student imagine that he can taste the delight of the learned in reading;

————— "*Juvat integros accedere fontes,*  
*Atque haurire !*"

Fifthly, 'from the perusal of an original author, we seem, (nay, we certainly more than seem) 'to form a more perfect picture of the manners and characters of the age which he describes than *can* be acquired from a translation.'

Sixthly, 'although the perfection of science is not to be expected in the antients; although Aristotle's contributions to our knowledge of natural history, when compared to modern improvements, are but inconsiderable; although Pliny, except where he has copied Aristotle, is but a fabulist; although the metaphysics of this last named writer are but scholastic definitions; and those of Plato, visionary, useless speculations—yet in Plato's republic, and in the writings of Xenophon and Cicero, (the Doctor surely should have added Thucydides and Tacitus) 'there are some' (*many*) 'good political observations; and in the morality of Socrates, as retailed by his pupils, and in the ethical treatises of the Stoics, Epictetus, and the Emperor Antonine especially, there is much to be applauded,' &c.—much to be imitated, we may say, even by Christian readers.

'If history' as the Doctor continues, 'is to be classed among the sciences, in this the antients cannot be too warmly commended. To their admirable writings we are indebted, not only for the most important facts in the history of mankind; but for the most perfect models in that species of composition.'—'But, whatever may have been wanting to the antients in science is amply compensated in taste'—We should be well pleased to extract much if not the whole of these concluding pages: but our limits forbid. We must indeed indulge in the selection of one short passage more:

'I should wish to see the antients studied for their matter, as well as for their language; but the information which they convey, is

too commonly made a secondary consideration. The attention of youth is directed to the elegant latinity of Cæsar and of Horace, not to the facts, observations, or precepts, which are contained in these valuable authors. If the tutors of our youth condescend to remark even upon the beauties of the classics, it is not on the beauty of sentiment, it is not on the vigour of imagination, it is not on the poetical ornaments. Their attention is at the utmost extended to a choice of words, to a curious grammatical connection, or to the nice intricacies of idiomatical phraseology.

'At the revival of letters a race of commentators were useful, if not necessary; they were the pioneers of literature, who cleared the way for more respectable adventurers. But in the present state of literature, can we behold without regret a man of genius dedicating a life to a few barren and fruitless verbal criticisms, to the regulating of a few phrases, or correcting in a few instances the quantity and metre of an obscure author; when, had he applied his talents as they ought to have been applied, he, perhaps would have produced an original composition, more valuable than the production on which he has so unworthily bestowed his labour?'

In these sentiments we cordially participate; and at no time was it more the duty of the friends and guardians of literature to encourage the study of original authors, and to decry the voluminous comments of modern editors, than it is at present. On this subject, however, we shall have frequent opportunities to speak.

To return, for another moment, to the consideration of the expediency of classical education, we are prepared to allow that our public schools too much resemble the bed of Procrustes, in which persons of all sizes were stretched or amputated according to the measure of their receptacle. Certainly, it is preposterous to endeavour to give a boy of a mechanical turn a relish for the classics: but the fault rests rather with parents than with instructors, when a boy, who discovers no taste for literature, is compelled to swallow daily bolusses of Homer and Virgil. Both military and naval institutions are established in the country; and every trade is open to the apprentice.—As to the mathematics, perhaps it would be better if new and improved opportunities were afforded for their cultivation at our public schools:—but what human institutions are free from defects? When we look at the long list of Statesmen, Divines, Lawyers, Physicians, and Scholars of every description, who have been educated even during the last fifty years at these noble and truly national establishments, shall we for some partial errors,

— "*quas aut incuria fudit,  
Aut humana parum cavit Natura,*"

condemns

condemn the whole system on which they are so liberally and so beneficially conducted ?

“ *Dii meliora piis—erroremque hostibus illum.*”

We have now to state, according to our promise, some few points of taste in which we differ from Dr. Gregory, and must then bring this critique to a conclusion.

After some just remarks (page 26. Vol. I.) on the novelty and originality of Mr. Burke's sallies of wit, which every reader must admire, (though we by no means highly estimate the argumentative powers of that florid orator,) Dr. Gregory observes that ‘ some writers of very secondary talents have acquired much temporary and transient fame by an air of novelty. Among these I cannot but rank the author of *Tristram Shandy*; and the *Sentimental Journey*, &c. In these most unclassical productions, we see all regard to connection and arrangement thrown aside; the reader is frequently left to help himself to a meaning; or, if there is one, it is such as no two men understand alike; sentiment is strangely mingled with attempts at wit; and both introduced with little apparent design.’—This is severe indeed; let us examine whether it be just. That Sterne's productions are unclassical, in point of language, we must most strenuously deny; for, as to the arrangement and connection of sentences, we challenge any advocate of any author to produce more beautiful specimens of harmonious and rounded periods from that author, than we can produce from Sterne. He balances words to a fault; and, if the echo of sound and sense be any thing beyond delusion, that echo is assuredly to be found in his writings. As to matter, Sterne is professedly a loose, rambling, desultory author; a sort of after-dinner-companion, who moralizes without method, and laughs when he can. That he deals too much in *double entendre* is certain: but this, although too often an imputation on his sense of propriety, is surely no charge against his ingenuity. On matters of feeling and humour it is impossible to argue: but we believe that few readers ever perused the story of *Le Fevre* without sympathy; or viewed Uncle Toby's military approaches to his mock siege of Dendermond, or his amorous approaches at his real siege of the widow Wadman, without a smile.—But, as Sterne himself says, “ there is no disputing about hobby-horses.”

Dr. Gregory observes (page 80. Vol. I.) that ‘ it is not a very easy matter to determine the æra of pure English; but I think we should not look farther back than the Revolution. Hooker, Bacon, Milton, Hobbes, and even Temple, are

scarcely to be considered as authorities in this respect. — This, in our opinion, is too starch and hypercritical. If we are alarmed at the use of words now growing obsolete, but sanctioned by such authority, must we not have recourse to synonymes imported from the French, or other foreign languages? Or let us endeavour, with a judicious boldness, to revive the good old English phrases which are consecrated, we may almost say, by the adoption of the glorious writers of the age of Elizabeth and the first and second Stuart; afterward indeed observing, with a cautious eye, the courtly innovations on our language which were so generally made in the reign of Charles the Second, but, with equal if not increased veneration, imitating the authors of the time of Anne; — a time, although not so fruitful in original and transcendent genius as the former period, yet perhaps on the whole justly denominated the Augustan age of English literature.

We confess that we are pleased to hear so respectable a writer as Dr. Gregory maintain that ‘this nation has been little indebted to the literature of France.’ This is a species of rationality in which we are not ashamed to partake, because we firmly believe it to be founded on a true and real superiority; far different from that mixture of overweening pride and sordid selfishness, that ill-grounded confidence in our strength and dreadful exposure of our contracted policy, which have marked the vice of *John-Bullism* in latter days.

We cannot agree with Dr. Gregory in thinking that vulgarity is a more dangerous fault in composition than affectation. The former, surely, in some degree carries its own antidote with it; since those writers cannot be extensively popular, who offend against the language of the majority, or at all events the preponderating part of their readers. No defect is so soon discovered (nay, so often imagined) as vulgarity in the present age. We live in a very pretty, gentlemanly, season. If we may use a metaphor, we have but few Hotspurs in any department of the state, and many “popinjays,” similar to that fine-spoken beau who demanded the warrior’s prisoners. Authors, too, are peculiarly delicate, — we mean popular authors, — which is the point that we are endeavouring to prove; namely, that no danger exists that excessive coarseness of style should become pleasing to the public or prevalent in our days. On the contrary, we may perhaps be perfumed to death (to return to our metaphor) by the feminine refinements of modern phraseology, though we have no chance of expiring under the influence of its manly strength. On these grounds we cannot coincide with the author in his censure of Lord Kames, when that writer speaks of the come-

dies of Aristophanes as "*wallowing* in looseness and detraction;" though Dr. G. is right when he observes on the false metaphor of this expression.

In page 152 of his second volume, the Doctor hazards the extraordinary assertion that 'he can give little commendation to the numbers of Lucretius.' Is the poet who created Virgil (as completely as Dryden created Pope,) to be thus mentioned?—Lucretius, were he not embarrassed by his philosophical subject, would be poetical throughout his work. He is poetical, in point of harmony, almost in every passage; in point of expression he was condemned to be prosaic. His pauses, his cadences, his whole rhythm, are even more varied than those of Virgil. Though we may admire the smoothness of the copy, it has not the grandeur of the original rough-draught; and this may be said of Dryden and of Pope, as we might establish by quotation.

With much better judgment, in our opinion, Dr. Gregory observes (page 154. Vol. 2.) that 'Horace's Art of Poetry has always appeared to him to consist of detached remarks upon poetry in general; written with the usual ease and spirit of the author; and seeming in some measure connected with the Epistle to Augustus.'—The want of method in Horace is indeed plainly observable; and Dr. G.'s remarks on this subject, as well as on the same deficiency in the philosophical treatises of Cicero, appear to us to be correct and convincing. The bright but desultory genius of these writers poured forth excellent observations on all matters that occurred to their inquiry, and *as they occurred*, but seemed to disdain or to be incapable of methodical arrangement. Yet well does Dr. Gregory urge, in palliation of this defect of system in Horace and in Pope, (we allude to the critical writings of each,) that 'criticism, as a science, cannot be reduced to rule; at least without applying it to every department of literature;'—and well does he add, with regard to Pope, 'that if the early age (not more than twenty) at which he wrote the Essay on Criticism be considered, it must be accounted an unexampled production.'

We fully agree, too, with Dr. G.'s opinion of Dr. Johnson's imitations of Juvenal. Nay, we will go farther; we think that they are equal in most parts, and in many superior, to their original.

The panegyric on Shakspeare (page 253) is delightful:

'His Dramas, after a lapse of two centuries, are still gazed at with unabated ardour by the populace, are still read with admiration by the scholar. They interest the old and the young; the gallery and the pit; the people and the critic. At their representation, appetite is never palled; expectation never disappointed. The changes of



of fashion have not cast him into shade ; the variations of language have not rendered him obsolete. His plots are lively, and command attention ; his characters are still new and striking, and his wit is fertile, even to exuberance.'

We can only refer to an admirable contrast between the eloquence of Mr. Pitt and that of Mr. Fox, in these volumes. To the striking resemblance of the former to Cicero in the copious rhetoric of his orations, and of the latter to Demosthenes in his close and animated logic, we have already adverted. This is a point which Dr. Gregory has not sufficiently considered, or indeed mentioned : but we have *felt* what has been excellently described by a French writer, as to the effect of the oratory of Cicero and of Demosthenes, and we may apply it, *mutatis mutandis*, most strictly to our own countrymen :—"How charmingly, how divinely does this man speak !" exclaimed the fascinated audience of Cicero.—"Let us go and fight Philip !" said the hearers of Demosthenes.

We must now take our leave of this last production of Dr. Gregory's pen ; and sincerely do we regret that it is the last. Although, in so extensive a course of literary observation, many subjects may be superficially treated, and some erroneous judgments may be passed on the numerous authors who come under review, yet on the whole we must repeat our high praise of this production, and again recommend it to be placed in every youthful scholar's library at the side of his Blair and his Rollin.

ART. VI. *A Body of Theology*, principally practical. In a Series of Lectures. By Robert Fellowes, A.M. Oxon. 2 Vols. 8vo. About 540 Pages in each Volume. 18s. Boards. Mawman.

IT is often the boast of the vicious that they follow nature, but no boast can be more completely fallacious. If the Supreme Ruler be possessed of moral attributes, if those attributes be displayed in the government of his rational creatures, and if his approbation of virtue and disapprobation of vice be manifested in the constitution of our being as well as in the administration of Providence, Natural Religion is no imaginary system, nor can the violation of its laws be justly considered as an obedience of nature. To combat modern Infidelity with success, and to prevent that triumph which it generally obtains when in league with the passions, it is necessary to advert to first principles, to consider the real language which the creation holds to man as a moral agent, and to point out how firmly Revelation stands when it is bottomed on the incontestible

doctrines of Natural Religion. Genuine theology and sound morality proceed from the same source ; and the latter almost necessarily depends on the former.

For this reason, a body of theology, which, discarding fanciful theories and the jargon of polemics, developes and explains the source of those principles which encourage virtue and point to immortality, is at all times of the greatest importance, and was never more wanted than in our day. We have always applauded the liberal and philosophic spirit which pervaded Mr. Fellowes's former publications, and are not disposed on the present occasion to be avaricious of our praise. We cannot, indeed, but feel some regret on account of the prolixity of the work ; being fully persuaded that the matter might have been compressed with advantage into less compass : yet the subjects of the lectures are all interesting ; and if Mr. F. has written more than was absolutely necessary, he has written it well. He seems to have been little affected by the obloquy which his freedom of discussion has excited ; he does not disguise his opinions, though his mode of displaying them never invites controversy ; and in the cases which we shall notice, in which he differs from the generality of Christians, he subjoins reasons for the singularity of his ideas. His great endeavour, he tells us, has been to manifest and to infuse the true spirit of practical religion ; he seems powerfully to have felt this spirit in his own mind ; and that man must have a soul of a very debased and grovelling cast, who can read these lessons without at least resolving on effecting some moral improvement of himself.

Some persons may expect, in a system of theology, to find a formal demonstration of the existence of God : but the author takes this truth for granted, or at least refers us for the proof of it to the works of nature, and commences his course of lectures with an able dissertation on the Divine Moral Government ; in which the traces and evidences of a superintending or providential administration, favourable to virtue and adverse to vice, notwithstanding the necessary characters of a probationary state, are exhibited in a forcible and satisfactory manner. It is justly observed that ' if some habits of action have a tendency to produce pleasure, and others pain, or if virtue be, in the majority of instances, associated with happiness, and vice with misery, it is plain that we are living in a world in which there is a superintending moral government, or in which our conduct is subject to laws, which we cannot violate with impunity.' This remark is strengthened by that which follows :

' Surely

' Surely the moral government of the Creator is clearly discerned in having placed us in such circumstances, that virtue is always, on the whole, found to be more our interest than vice; that the one is productive of a greater degree and a purer kind of pleasure than the other; that the one is the excellence, and the other the degradation of our nature; that the one elevates us to the rank of higher intelligences, and the other depresses us below the level of the irrational creation. And if in the common course of things, and amid the clash of human interests, greater encouragement and reward be, in any degree, afforded to the practice of humility, patience, temperance, truth, justice, and humanity, than to the contrary, or only in such a degree as still to leave the temptations to pride, querulousness, sensuality, falsehood, cruelty, and oppression, force to operate on the mind, it is sufficient to prove a moral government, considered as adapted to a state of discipline, to a probationary world. And what particularly deserves attention, in the consideration of a question so momentous and so interesting, is that, independant of the force of habit, and the contagion of example, vice has nothing like a natural auxiliary in the mind or heart; that the whole constitution of our nature on the contrary does contain in it the principles of an inveterate hostility to vice; while all our natural sentiments and affections are found aptly and almost spontaneously to marshal themselves under the banners of virtue, as long as they obey the supremacy of conscience.'

In the lecture intituled *Life a State of Probation*, the properties of such a state are considered; and from the adaptation of our nature to our present circumstances, from the tendencies of virtue and vice, and from the faculty which we possess of advancing in and of acquiring habits of virtue, the intention of Providence respecting us in a Future State is inferred:

' In this life we clearly see that men in some measure enjoy happiness or suffer misery according to the morality of their actions, that virtue produces a grateful satisfaction and vice inquietude and woe, that there are evident tendencies in vice and virtue to occasion a greater degree of pleasure or of pain than they actually do occasion here, and that, notwithstanding the seemingly confused and fortuitous distribution of temporal advantages, the happiness of men is in no small measure dependant on their conduct. These and other things clearly corroborate the doctrine of religion, that this life is a state of trial; and they in fact furnish so many palpable instances of its existence.'

' The circumstances of temptation in which we are placed are necessary to a state of trial; for such a life supposes motives to very opposite lines of conduct, drawing one way by the allurements of present gratification, and impelling another by the prospect of future good; and these very circumstances, difficult and discouraging as they may seem, are wisely adapted to form in us more firm and vigorous habits of virtue than we could otherwise acquire; and consequently to fit us for a higher state of enjoyment, for which we could not otherwise be prepared.'

To the best of men in all ages, some sceptical doubts have occasionally occurred respecting the object of the Divine Administration, on noticing the temporary prosperity of sinners and the misfortunes of the righteous : but these doubts have arisen rather from a hasty and superficial glance, than from a serious and patient examination of the cases. We are too apt to contemplate the present life as an isolated state of existence, to forget that we see but a part and not the whole of our being, and to be unmindful that to us the government of God *must* in some respects be inscrutable : yet enough is manifested to convince us of its benevolence, and to reconcile us to the trials which it presents :

‘ If (says Mr. F.) this world be the beginning of our existence ; if it be the first link in that endless chain of being, or in other words, the first step in those innumerable gradations of intellectual life for which we are designed, then we may allege most wise and beneficent reasons for the small share of genuine bliss and joy, and the large portion of heartfelt care and woe, which are the natural inheritance of this mortal life. For if we be capable, as we evidently are, of a high degree of happiness, and at the same time are progressive in the scale of being, it seems better that we should begin our course in a state and in circumstances which admit of only a small and low degree of happiness, than that we should be made all at once as happy as we are capable of being ; and if we be progressive in happiness, and if the happiness which we enjoy in every succeeding gradation in the scale of intelligence be susceptible of increase, by comparison with our condition in the states through which we have already passed, then our present sufferings, much as they are now the subject of complaint, and the source of distrust, may be the occasion of joy, and the increase of our bliss in all the revolutions of time. Hence we may conceive how the afflictions, even of the just, which are not intended as the correctives of immorality, afford no uncertain indications of the beneficence of God : hence we may discern how those that sow in tears shall reap in joy ; how the righteous are perfected by suffering, and how the multiplied distresses and agonizing pangs of the holy Jesus, while they confirmed the sincerity of his intentions, and were fitted to instruct and benefit all succeeding generations by their example, contributed to advance him to the most exalted pitch of felicity and glory.’

As the doctrine of a Future State is important towards the elucidation of moral difficulties in the Divine Administration, and as a perfect character was requisite for our pattern, the author proceeds next to display *the Necessity of the Christian Revelation* ; the divine origin of which is considered as clearly deducible from its nice and accurate adaptation to the state, to the faculties, and to the exigencies of man. Here the author enters into an ingenious disquisition on the tendency of Christianity to promote the progress of civilization, by the diffusion

diffusion of the benevolent principle; and he contends that the gospel can be preached with very little prospect of success to mere savages. Instead of adopting the well-meant but ill-digested plans of some missionaries, he coincides in the views of those not less sensible than amiable Quakers in America, who prefaced their attempts to convert the Indians in the back-settlements, by sending persons to instruct them in the arts of civilized life, to present them with those implements and tools which are employed in husbandry and in building, and to teach them their use:

‘It is among the social haunts of civilized man that the Christian doctrine finds the most proper soil for its culture and increase. To preach Christianity to barbarians who have hardly reached the first rudiments of social life, is almost as fruitless an attempt as to scatter the seeds of tropic plants among Siberian wilds. The Apostles made their first essay to propagate the Christian doctrine, not among the freebooters of the Desert, or the vagrant tribes of Scythia, but in the most polished cities of Asia and Europe, where information was most generally diffused, a spirit of inquiry most awake, and the arts of civilized life best known. For as the essence of Christianity consists in the practice of the most diffusive and refined benevolence, we have little chance of teaching it with success among those who, from the necessity of their circumstances, are almost solely occupied in the pursuit of selfish and solitary gratifications. Before, then, we endeavour to spread the Christian doctrine among barbarians, it seems right, in order the more readily to pave the way for its admission, to begin by instructing them in the arts of civilized life; for without some degree of civilization, there can be no respect for the common decencies of life; and a bestial grossness in the external behaviour is absolutely incompatible with any thing like purity of morals.’

When we advance to the lecture on *Rational Analogies and Probabilities in favour of a Future Life*, the author reminds us of the arguments employed by Butler and Baxter on the subject: but he evades the difficulty which has been so often urged by sceptics against the Resurrection of the body, that the order of Nature is succession and not reproduction, by maintaining that the individual consciousness of the soul is independent of the body, that it can preserve its powers and enjoyments without the body, and that the language of scripture in reference to this subject must be considered as mere figure and allegory. So singular an opinion, in direct opposition to the declaration of various passages in the Gospels and Epistles, required more explanation than is given: but the author excuses himself, in a note, from entering the lists of controversy, and is contented with stating his own views:

‘In mentioning a future life, our Lord seems to have spoken of the resurrection of the body, in compliance with the common hopes and feelings

feelings of the more ignorant part of mankind, who, not considering the nature of spirit, and not knowing in what personal identity consists, are apt to imagine that the body constitutes the man; and that there can be no continuation of the same person without a continuation of the same outward visible corporeal personality. Hence, in order to render the general truth of a future life more striking to the sense, and better suited to our gross conceptions, the blessed and tenderly compassionating Jesus speaks of it under the idea of a corporeal resurrection; though from several incidental hints and intimations in the Scripture, we have good ground for believing that he did not intend his words to be literally understood, but as adapted to the common intelligences and ordinary conceptions of mankind. It may be said that the resurrection of our Lord was a corporeal resurrection; but though the resurrection of our Lord afforded an irrefragable proof of a future life, we can by no means argue that we shall rise again in the same body in the way which he did, when there was a particular reason which rendered such a resurrection necessary in his case, and when there are reasons which would render it absurd in ours; for our Lord rose in the body on purpose to give his disciples a visible and palpable proof of his resurrection, and to preclude all possible cavil about the identity of the person, or the reality of the fact.'

The Future Judgment is considered also as a mere scenic representation, intended to impress common minds; and the soul is supposed immediately on quitting the body to pass, according to its deserts, which are known to the Deity, into that state to which it belongs. Many objections, however, will be made to this representation. In the case of our Saviour, it will be asked what became of his body; and in the case of his people, what are we to understand of the *glorified bodies* into which their *natural bodies* are promised to be transformed? According to Mr. Fellowes, souls are united to bodies on their entrance into this life, but these bodies are not to encumber them in the next. By his scheme, the perplexities which attend the doctrine of the Resurrection of the body are avoided: but the difficulty of reconciling it with the representations contained in the N. T. remains.

We proceed to the lecture intitled *the Mosaic Dispensation preparatory to the Christian Dispensation*. Here Mr. F. exhibits the striking features of the Jewish religion; and, by representing the moral imperfections of the Law as amended and its restricted doctrines as enlarged by the Prophets, he would lead us to regard the Prophetic Dispensation as supplementary to the Law, and essentially preparatory to the Gospel. It is very manifest to the readers of the O. T. that the refreshing notion of the efficacy of repentance, and the exhilarating doctrine of a future state, are not so largely stated and loudly reiterated by Moses

as by the prophets : but, nevertheless, in the Law the platability of the Divine Nature is represented by Jehovah himself to be his glory. See *Exod.* xxxiv. 6, 7.

To the lectures on *the Excellence of the Christian Religion* ; on *the Crucifixion, Resurrection, and the Imitation of Christ* ; on *the Future Judgment* ; on *Moral Reformation* ; on *the Gains and Pleasures of Goodness* ; and on *Prayer*, including that part of it which is called *Thanksgiving* ; much consideration is due, since they abound with matter of the highest practical interest, and are calculated to excite that rational devotion and to brace the mind to that high-toned morality, which accompany an estimate and conduct of life that truly emanate from Christian principles.

We do not recollect any publication in which the real essence of the Gospel of Jesus, which may be said to consist of *Love to God and Love to Man*, is more neatly explained or more rationally and engagingly recommended, than in the three lectures at the beginning of Mr. Fellowes's second volume. The importance of our love of God towards eminence in virtue is placed in the clearest light ; and the love of our neighbour, or the cultivation of the benevolent principle, is demonstrated to be more conducive to individual happiness than obedience to the narrow and sordid dictates of selfishness. Mr. F. urges us to attempt a victory over such selfish and malevolent propensities, whatever struggles and difficulties it may cost, since this victory will be in its fruits the most sweet and satisfactory of triumphs. He tells us that ' the good of others, when we envy it, is our loss ; but, when we rejoice in it, is our gain.' The virtue of Charity, in the Gospel sense of the term, is represented as the most enviable of all moral attainments. In short, he proves the truth of the poet's assertion that " self-love and social are the same ;" or that self-love and the love of our neighbour, though at the first view so very discordant in their operations and tendencies, yet, when rightly appreciated and duly exercised, eventually coincide and are completely identified :

' He, who was intimately versed in the constitution of man, made self-love the rule and the measure of benevolence ; and when Jesus delivered this precept, " thou shalt love thy neighbour as thyself," he certainly intended to intimate, that we cannot love ourselves so well as we ought, without loving our fellow-creatures as well as ourselves ; and that an adherence to this enlarged rule of life would be found eventually more conducive even to our individual enjoyment, than any more confined and more selfish principle of conduct.'

That precept, which the antients considered as divine, "*Know thyself*,"—or *the Duty of Self-Examination*,—is next discussed ;  
and

and the consequences resulting from the cultivation or the neglect of a right moral knowledge of ourselves are fully displayed.

The object of the lecture on *the Moral Constitution of Man, the Particular and General Affections, and the Genius of Patriotism*, is to analyze the complex structure of the mental system, to exhibit the combined force of its different propensities and faculties, to explain the action and re-action of the particular and the general affections, (or in what way the general desire of our own good harmonizes with a general regard to the good of others,) and to exhibit Patriotism as a particular affection, subordinate to the principle of universal benevolence. Mr. Fellowes professes himself in these discussions to be indebted to Bishop Butler, who is styled 'the most profound thinker that ever sat on the episcopal bench;' and in our opinion he ought to have referred us to the Bishop's sermons, particularly those on *Human Nature, Compassion, and the Love of our Neighbour*, where many of Mr. F.'s ideas will be found.

The following short extract will remind the classical reader of that beautiful passage of Cicero, "*Cari sunt Parentes*," &c.

'Patriotism is one of our particular affections, which seems most remote from self-love, and approaches nearest to the verge of that general benevolence which christianity inspires. As general benevolence includes patriotism, so patriotism, which is limited to a more confined sphere of action, includes friendship, family love, and, in short, all our individual attachments.'

Instead of analyzing the lecture on *Compassion*, we shall extract the conclusion, which affords a correct view of our nature respecting its capacity of enduring pleasure and pain:

'Pleasure and pain, when carried to a certain pitch, both debilitate and destroy, but pleasure will be found to debilitate more and to destroy sooner than pain. For the animal fibre is so constructed, that pleasure, when carried at all beyond the line of mediocrity, is more injurious to it than pain. Enjoyments above the temperature of mediocrity, act more fatally on the system than afflictions above the mediocrity of pain. For it is astonishing what a degree, and what a length of suffering the individual will endure, and often without any sensible injury to his constitution, while any pleasure, in the same proportion both as to quantity and continuance, would infallibly ruin and shorten his days. The inhabitant of the cold climate, who is apparently more conversant with pain, usually enjoys better health, greater strength, and longer life, than the inhabitant of the hot, who is more readily and more copiously supplied with the materials of sensitive enjoyment. Instances of longevity are more common among those who have been used to rather a spare and abstemious diet, than among those who fare sumptuously every day, and whose tables groan with the luxuries of the east and of the west.

' Though



‘ Though, in this probationary life, Providence has destined the majority of us to so large a portion of suffering, yet, in the economy of nature, the constitution of the world, and, above all, the nature of man, we may discern evident traces, not of his indifference to, but of his compassion for, our sufferings. And among the proofs of this benignant disposition in the great Creator of all things, may be reckoned the general tendency of suffering to promote even our physical and always our moral benefit, the various antidotes to, or alleviations of, pain and misery, with which the world abounds; and, above all, the divine principle of compassion, which is planted in the breast of man, and which causes him not only to commiserate, but impels him to relieve the distresses of his brother man.’

Even those qualities of our nature which seem to be, at first sight, opposite to Benevolence, such as Anger and Resentment, are shewn in a subsequent lecture to have been given for wise purposes, and within certain limits to be innocent in their operation: but, as these feelings are more commonly carried to excess than restrained within lawful bounds, considerations are offered which tend to moderate their violence, and to dispose the heart to the forgiveness of injuries rather than to the indulgence of revenge.

In the lecture on a *Pacific Disposition*, the character of a true lover of peace is well drawn, and the means of promoting it in all the intercourses of society are forcibly urged. Mr. F.’s rational views of religion are in perfect accordance with the benevolence of his heart; and he justly remarks that ‘ a breach of charity is the worst heresy of which we can be guilty.’

As it is an undoubted fact that we more often offend in word than in any other way, and as calumny and detraction, or contumelious and degrading expressions of others, are the poisons which secretly destroy the cordiality of neighbourhoods, a discourse on *the Government of the Tongue* (for which St. James has furnished an apposite text) is properly subjoined to arguments in favour of a pacific disposition: but, while Mr. Fellowes enters his solemn protest against the language of malevolence, blasphemy, and obscenity, he is an advocate for that innocent sprightliness and hilarity of conversation which form the *sal volatile* of society; and lest some persons should suppose that our Lord’s censure of “ every idle word ” includes this kind of discourse, Mr. F. remarks that the term *apron*, which is rendered *idle*, means ‘ perverse, wicked, or flagitious.’ Yet this lecturer is aware of the too frequent tendency of colloquial discourse; and therefore he subjoins a hint which may be applicable to every parish in the kingdom:

‘ That kind of pleasantry should be carefully avoided in conversation which consists in sneering at others; in saying ill-natured things of them; in under-rating their excellences or exaggerating their defects. That jocularitv is sinful which has the least tincture of malevolence,

volence; and surely he cannot but be malevolent, who is continually endeavouring to raise a laugh at the expence of others, to torture them with feelings of embarrassment, or to depress them with a sense of inferiority. Nothing tends to excite ill-will so bitter, or aversion so lasting, as ill natured sayings, acrimonious taunts, and malevolent suggestions. For an insult is more apt to rankle in the heart than an injury. Hence we ought carefully to avoid this practice, if it were only for the sake of avoiding the hate of our fellow-creatures, and of not producing incurable animosities. But we ought also to avoid it from higher motives, from a conviction that it tends to corrupt our own hearts, and to generate in us a malevolent disposition that must finally prove a great obstruction to our peace here, and a certain ruin of our happiness hereafter. And let us consider that we have all faults enough ourselves, without dwelling invidiously or discoursing maliciously on the follies and imperfections, the mistakes and oversights of our neighbour; and as the errors and defects of our neighbour can seldom be mentioned without malevolence, they can seldom be canvassed without sin; and it will usually be found, that as far as relates to the character of others, there is a stronger infusion of malice in ludicrous representation than in open invective or serious rebuke. Do we not know that a fair character is of the last importance and that it ought not to be lightly aspersed or wantonly arraigned! Or have we so little charity as to imagine that the reputation of our neighbour is of such trifling consequence as not to be put in competition with a broad grin, an arch simper, or a loud laugh?

Want of space (the excuse which we are so often obliged to make, when we truly wish to oblige both the author and our readers by a fuller account) must be our apology for taking no notice of the lectures on *Oaths*, *Evil-Speaking*, *Slander*, *Detraction*, *Rash-Judgment*, and a *meddling Disposition*. We must also pass over those on *Subjection to the Divine Will* as exemplified in the conduct of Jesus, on *Contentment*, and on *Patience*: but, as the last lecture has this attractive title, '*The only way to be happy, and the true constituents of Happiness*,' we will indulge our readers with its sum and substance, which is given in the few following words: 'It is only in a virtuous conduct, or in a life regulated by the precepts of justice and true holiness, that genuine pleasure consists and true joy can be found.'

These lectures contain abundant matter for the practical preacher, and may be exhibited with very little alteration in the form of sermons: yet we think that they might rather have been intitled a *Body of Morality*, than a mere *Body of Theology*; or at least that the two terms should have been united. From the commencement to the conclusion, a current of the purest ethics flows with such beauty and spirit, that he who surveys it can possess neither taste nor virtue if he does not resolve on taking a copious draught of its waters.

Art. VII. *An Attempt to show by what Means the United Kingdom and the World may be saved from Subjection to France, without the Abolition, in Great Britain and Ireland, of all Distinctions on Account of Religion.* 8vo. pp. 389. 7s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard.

WE have seldom met with a composition that was more defective in arrangement than this. It has no table of contents, nor any division into books, chapters, or sections. The verbose title-page has not the merit of being very definite, and yet, vague as it is, it supplies the only clue to the contents of the volume. After considerable research, however, we have found out that this production may be divided into three parts; 1st. a treatise on our military force; 2d. an argument against Catholic claims; and 3d. a disquisition on foreign politics and the state of Europe. The mixture of such heterogeneous topics affords, in the first instance, no very flattering promise; and the reader's expectations will not be elevated as his acquaintance with his author becomes more intimate. One of the introductory sentences is as follows: 'Let us then take (page 3) a general view of the state of the world as it is, and as we may apprehend it is likely to be to an indefinite period.' What accuracy can we expect from a writer who deals in such *extensive* propositions?

The first twenty pages are occupied by a disquisition on the power and designs of France; after which we have a long and minute commentary on our military system, particularly our militia, trained men, and volunteers. It would have afforded us pleasure to have laid before our readers the ideas of an intelligent writer on these topics, which, though frequently discussed, are still very little understood: but the want of method and comprehension, which prevails in this work, would render an analysis of its contents a painful and unproductive task: the author having in fact no comprehensive views or leading principles to govern his conclusions. Amid a mass of prolix and desultory details, a few ingenious and judicious notions occur,—*nantes in gurgite vasto*: such, for instance, as the recommendation (. 41.) that every officer appointed to discipline the people should be in a situation of individual responsibility; and that a branch of duty should not be divided between two or more persons, the effect of which is to produce negligence in some, if not in all of them. Similar praise is due to the advice, (p. 45) though not novel nor original, to accustom recruits to military exercises on an extensive scale, such as marches and manœuvres on rough and varied ground. The author dwells also very properly on the importance of drilling boys at school; and (page 56) on the facility

facility of making numerous corps of marksmen out of the population at large. We cannot reconcile ourselves to this mode of warfare : but they certainly are a description of troops at all times valuable in an inclosed country like England, and have been rendered doubly important to us by their augmentation of late years in the French army.

After having favoured us with a variety of minute directions on military discipline, the author proceeds to a discussion of the Catholic claims. It will naturally be imagined that a cause, which has united so many suffrages, and obtained the joint support of rival statesmen, is in no great danger from the hostility of such an assailant as here appears against it. If he fails, however, it is not for want of words, since he has bestowed a hundred and fifty pages on this subject. The character of his reasoning is the same as in the previous part of his book ; discovering, at times, accuracy of local knowledge and a capacity for suggesting useful hints, but burying these scanty treasures under a cumbrous and unprofitable load. Among the praise-worthy passages, may be reckoned his observations (page 246.) on the form of church-government in Scotland, and its influence on public morals ; his complaint (p. 256.) of the inequality and inadequacy of clerical incomes in England, and his regret (p. 140.) that Catholic officers should be incapable of holding staff-appointments. The following short extract is indicative of attention to the condition of the Irish peasantry :

‘ We must not flatter ourselves that it would be possible for the wisest government to remove all the evils which exist in Ireland, without the aid of time.

‘ In proportion to the advances made in agriculture, we may expect to see a change favourable to good order in the condition of the peasantry. At present, a great majority of the people live chiefly on the produce of a small piece of land, for which, in many cases, they pay an exorbitant rent : so that with working occasionally for hire, they enjoy a sort of precarious and uneasy independence. They often want a market for the produce of their land. When in possession of a little money, they seldom have a notion of laying it by. Though many cross the channel to procure work, but few are disposed to labour steadily at home ; and they live scattered over the face of the country, in small cabins, frequently at a great distance from towns and public roads ; but as the value of land increases, and agricultural enterprise is extended, these small tenants will give place to men possessed of capital, estates will be divided into farms of considerable extent, and the people will be at length addicted to regular labour, becoming altogether more dependent on their superiors, and more submissive to legal authority.’

The censure, however, which we feel it incumbent to bestow on this part of the book greatly exceeds the proportion of praise. It abounds

abounds with illiberal ideas and loose allegations. We are told (page 182) that the Union would operate to retard but not to remove the dangers of Catholic emancipation; that we ought not (p. 143.) 'to be continually running up and down to redress grievances, remedy defects, and make all mankind what they never can be;' and (page 151) that the repeal of the Act for the Protestant succession to the Crown might be dreaded, if the repeal of the Test Act was to take place. To the very interesting question, "When are the Catholics to hope for a compliance with their petition," the author answers (p. 157), with his usual vagueness, 'whenever the reasons now urged against it can be urged no longer.' He defends the restrictions on the Catholics, (page 203) because forsooth 'they are not newly enacted, nor contrary to received opinions, established regulations, and antient practice.' In case of insurrection, he is for shewing no mercy. 'We will promise them, (he says) if they dare to rebel, the reward of treason, an ignominious death by the hand of the executioners. Let them not hope for mercy or mitigation of the sentence of the law.' After such language as this, it is amusing to find the author (page 220) insinuating a claim to the character of 'meekness and moderation.'

The last part of the work contains a disquisition on the political state of Europe. It is exempt from the ebullitions of temper which are apparent in the arguments against the Catholics, but the reasoning is debased by similar imbecility. The writer adopts the vulgar idea (page 293) that 'France will give signs of internal weakness as soon as she is forced to maintain her armies on her own territory;' yet, notwithstanding his belief of this notion, he acquiesces (page 310) in the apparently contradictory idea that 'peace may be looked on by us as a dangerous experiment.' The best passage in this part of the book is his plan of tactics (p. 353) against an invading enemy; yet even here we find little that can lay claim to novelty.

We deem it unnecessary to enlarge either our comments on or our extracts from this singular production. It exhibits a specimen of the wanderings of a mind, which is by no means ill provided as to amount of information, but is greatly deficient in the essential task of digesting and classifying its stores. The author seems to be one of those who let loose their fancy on whatever topic occurs to them, whether connected or not with the leading objects of their inquiry. His details are consequently endless, as is always the case when a writer is incapable of general views. He is evidently unaccustomed to composition; and we cannot augur much good from any future production.

tion of his pen, unless it be composed in a very different manner from the present volume.

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ART. VIII. *The Letters of Mrs. Elizabeth Montagu*, with some of the Letters of her Correspondents. Part the First, containing her Letters from an early Age to the Age of Twenty-three. Published by Matthew Montagu, Esq. M.P., her Nephew and Executor. Crown 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1809.

WHO has not heard of Mrs. Montagu, the Queen of *Blue Stockings* and the Patroness of *Black Legs*? Who that has moved in the circles of fashion has been a stranger to her *conversations*, or literary parties, and her sett of female *savans*; or who that has ever read the public newspapers is ignorant of her singular but benevolent annual entertainment, on May-day, of the pitiable tribe of Chimney-sweepers? Mrs. Montagu was certainly as well known in England, in the character of a *bel esprit*, as Madame du Deffand, or Mademoiselle de l'Espinasse, or any other French female wit, has been on the Continent; and since we have lately announced to our readers the epistolary productions of some of those Ladies, we are glad of the opportunity of placing by the side of them the just claims of our fair country-women to similar distinction, and, we hope, to equal or superior praise. Mrs. Chapone, Mrs. Carter, Mrs. Vesey, and Miss Talbot, have recently passed before us in the contest for posthumous fame; and we have now to attend a very distinguished member of this female *coterie*, whose early wit and native archness of style will carry her into honourable competition.

We cannot more fairly introduce the lively volumes before us, than by pursuing the little historical sketch relating to the author and her family, which the editor has judiciously prefixed to them. The circumstances, by which an interesting or a striking character is formed, are always in some degree the subject of curious speculation; and in the present instance they will throw peculiar light on the first operations of a vigorous, active, and playful mind,—will explain its acquired bias,—account for its habits of thought and feeling,—and afford, we think, to every candid judgment a complete apology for any thing that we could be tempted to wish different from what we find it.

Matthew Robinson, Esq. of West Layton in Yorkshire, of Coveney in Cambridgeshire, and of Mount-Morris in Kent, married at the age of eighteen, while a fellow commoner in the University of Cambridge, and became the father of twelve

twelve children. His large family made it prudent for him to spend much of his time at his country-seats, while his heart secretly sighed for literary conversation, social pleasures, and the metropolis. He is described as a man of great literary endowments, and admirable colloquial talents; which are supposed to have received, however, some tincture of sarcasm from the *ennui* that was inspired by the dulness of a country neighbourhood. His economy and his taste were in some degree reconciled by a frequent intercourse with the University, where he was familiarly acquainted with Dr. Middleton, and several other distinguished characters.

Of his numerous offspring, it seems probable that his daughter Elizabeth was the most conspicuous both for wit and beauty: parents, therefore, will hear without surprize that he was proud of exhibiting her talents and her charms, that he laboured to cultivate her mind, and that he loved to encourage and applaud her lively sallies. Her brothers were also fond of literary pursuits; and the whole family were accustomed to exercise themselves in frequent and spirited debates, except the mother, who was fortunately more prone to listen than to speak, and was placed *hors de combat* by the unenvied pre-eminence of presiding, under the title of *Speaker*, at the discussions of the domestic forum:

‘Elizabeth’s uncommon sensibility and acuteness of understanding, as well as her extraordinary beauty as a child, rendered her an object of great notice and admiration in the University, and Dr. Middleton was in the habit of requiring from her an account of the learned conversations at which, in his society, she was frequently present; not admitting of the excuse of her tender age as a disqualification, but insisting that although at the present time she could but imperfectly understand their meaning, she would in future derive great benefit from the habit of attention inculcated by this practice.’

Is it matter of great astonishment, or severe censure, that a young person so educated, so endowed, and so stimulated, should cherish some fondness for a studious display of wit, should sometimes indulge a natural and highly improved talent for satirical representation, or even should sometimes be betrayed by vivacity into what might be called a little pertness and petulance? Is it extraordinary that the ambition to shine as a correspondent should appear in the letters of such a person at the age of fourteen, or even earlier, when she probably knew that they were desired only to be exhibited? That she has in general been most successful in the attempt, that most of her pictures are highly brilliant, and that most of her remarks are at once shrewd and playful, it were not merely want of candor but want of discernment to deny.

In the ruling passions of her father, his love of literature, society, and London, and his hatred of dulness and the country, the young lady appears to have cordially sympathized. The following specimen occurs in her fourteenth year :

“ Horton, Jan. 27. 1734, I hope I shall have the pleasure of paying my respects to your Ladyship soon, for though I am tired of the country, to my great satisfaction, I am not so much so as my papa ; he is a little vapoured. and last night after two hours silence he broke out into a great exclamation against the country, and concluded in saying, that living in the country was sleeping with one’s eyes open ; if he sleeps all day I am sure he dreams very much of London. What makes this place more dull is, my brothers are none of them here : two of them went away about a fortnight ago, and ever since my papa has ordered me to put a double quantity of saffron in his tea. I beg you would not mention a word of this to my papa, when he has the honour of seeing you, for fear he should think I make too free with him.”

We interpose a little harmless caricature, from a letter written in the same year to the Duchess of Portland :

“ I am surprised that my answer to your Grace’s letter has never reached your hands. I sent it immediately to Canterbury by the servant of a gentleman who dined here, and I suppose he forgot to put it in the post. I am reconciled to the carelessness of the fellow, since it has procured to me so particular a mark of your concern. If my letter were sensible, what would be its mortification, that, instead of having the honour to kiss your Grace’s hands, it must lie confined in the footman’s pocket, with greasy gloves, rotten apples, mouldy nuts, a pack of dirty cards, and the only companion of its sort, a tender epistle from his sweet-heart, “ tru tell Deth.” Perhaps by its situation subject to be kicked by his master every morning, till at last, by ill usage and rude company, worn too thin for any other use, it may make its exit in lighting a tobacco pipe. I believe the fellow who lost my letter knew very well how ready I should be to supply it with another.”

In the very next page, the business of a country life returns in all its horrors, and is instantly turned into “ a mirth-moving jest :”

“ I am extremely glad Lady Oxford has found so much benefit by the Bath waters ; we talked of going to Bath, but my papa is so well that it is laid aside. I am very glad my papa has recovered his health, or rather his spirits, for that was all he wanted ; but I should have been better pleased if he had gone to Bath first, to have attributed his cure to that circumstance. One common objection to the country is, one sees no faces but those of one’s own family ; but my papa thinks he has found a remedy for that, by teaching me to draw ; but then he husbands these faces in so cruel a manner, that he brings me sometimes a nose, sometimes an eye at a time ; but on the King’s birth-day, as it was a festival, he brought me out a whole  
face



face with its mouth wide open. If I could draw well enough, I would send Miss W. her own musty face. I am sorry Le Brun has not seen it, that he might have put it in his book of drawings among the faces that express the several passions; but he has none that express mustiness.

The last concert is pursued with great humour at the nineteenth page:

‘ I should be much obliged to your Grace if you would do me the honour to send me some decent limb of your drawing. If you design to make any proficiency in that art, I would advise you not to draw old men’s heads. It was the rueful countenance of Socrates or Seneca that first put me out of conceit with it; had my papa given me the blooming faces of Adonis and Narcissus, I might have been a more apt scholar; and when I told him I found those great beards difficult to draw, he gave me St. John’s head in a charger; so to avoid the speculation of dismal faces, which by my art I dismalized ten times more than they were before, I threw away my pencil. If I drew a group of little figures, I made their countenances so sad, and their limbs so distorted, that from a set of laughing Cupids, they looked like the tormented infants in Herod’s cruelty, and smiling Venus like Rachel weeping for her children. Though my happy genius chiefly led me to the drawing tragi-comic countenances, for I drew down the eyes till they looked as if they were weeping, and turned up the ends of the mouth, which gave an amiable simper to the lower part of the face; with some vanity I say it, nobody drew a compound passion, such as grief and joy, and pain and pleasure, better than myself: like my famed predecessor, Apelles, I have drawn as well with a happy stroke of my pencil as it has fallen out of my hand, as ever I did with pains and study. I have heard of some who have been famous landscape painters; others who have been famous battle painters; but I take myself to have been the best hospital painter; for I never drew a figure that was not lame or blind, and they had all something of the horrible in their countenances; and by the arching of their eye-brows, and the opening their mouths, they looked so frightened, you would have thought they had seen their own faces in the glass.’

Thus when only fourteen years old she could talk of Venus and Cupid; and at eighteen we find her thus laughing at the loves and graces of mature age:

‘ Lord Winchelsea has ceased his douceurs to Miss Palmer, which I was sorry for; I always think a languishing swain of forty (next to a credulous virgin of thirty years old) the most diverting sight in the world; Solomon said well when he said there was a time for all things; there is a time to sigh, and a time to smile; but a sigh in an old man is a groan, and the smile of an old maid is a grin. There is a time to flatter, and a time to believe it; but there is a time when flattery is fulsome, and belief ridiculous; there is a time to ogle,

and a time to look through spectacles, but to do both together is squinting through a glass; a moving, not a melting sight.'

From Bath, from London, and from Canterbury, a vast number of entertaining observations and lively anecdotes are dispatched by the fair writer to her various correspondents: but the innocence of a young and curious mind is occasionally betrayed into a slight and unconscious violation of decorum. The Duchess of Portland, who was either much more frequently addressed by her, or was much more careful of her letters than any other person, appears indeed to have been the object of her sincere attachment. Il liberal minds, apt to regard persons in a higher sphere of life as "pigeons to be plucked," are proportionally ready to suspect the meanness of flattery and circumvention in all who communicate with their superiors in rank: but it is only justice to Miss Robinson to state that her letters to the Duchess do not contain a single expression of esteem or affection which might not have been naturally expected from equal friends; and though the phrases of formal respect are, after the fashion of those days, sometimes more numerous than they would be at present, at others the young lady's letters are almost *deficient* in these points, and, when admitted, such ceremonials are now and then made still more solemn for the purpose of heightening the humour. She often adopts, without acknowledging, the language of Shakespeare, and often reminds us of the style of Beatrice.

To return to the volumes themselves. The next extract is from a letter to her sister:

'I dined yesterday at Mr. C——'s. It was a family party, and it was very entertaining to see how they contradicted each other in every word and action, so that not even the wing of a fowl could be cut off *nemine contradicente*. If one thought he could perform well, the other imagined he could teach better; and contests were ready to arise about the precedency of the liver and gizzard. B—— complained of the vapours, and wished to be in the country to cure his cough, which the old man observed came upon him by keeping late hours. The young one in return scoffed at the laborious sons of day-light. This reminded me of the reading of my youth, when the butterfly in the fable despising the caterpillar, the worm tells him that all his gaudy colours are the produce of the dirt he scorns. B—— seems to hate money, as a young prince hates the prime minister, because it is his father's favourite. I have often wondered why nature made a drone, but I suppose it is in the common-course of things, the son of an alderman bee, whose providence has precluded his son's industry.'

In 1741, Miss Robinson, then twenty years of age, was separated from her family in order to avoid the small-pox.

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The scene of her seclusion is admirably described in several epistles, half merry and half mournful :

‘ I live here very easy, and have as much time to myself as I please ; and I have got books, and all the necessaries and comforts, though not the pomps and pleasures of life. The family are civil and sensible people. As for the master of the house, he is indeed to a tittle Spenser’s meagre personage called Care : his chief accomplishment, as to behaviour, is silence. I never see him but at dinner and supper, and then he eats his pudding and holds his tongue. I believe his learning amounts to knowing that four pennies make a groat, and the sooner that groat becomes sixpence, he thinks, the better. To give your Grace a notion of my way of life, I must inform you of the sort of persons who compose the drama, and their rank of life. They are above farmers considerably, have been possessed in the family, for aught I know, since the Conqueror, of about four hundred pounds a year ; they have a good old house neatly furnished ; but there is nothing of modern structure to be seen in it. I am now sitting in an old crimson velvet elbow chair I should imagine to be elder brother to that which is shewn in Westminster abbey as Edward the Confessor’s. There are long tables in the room that have more feet than the caterpillar you immured at Bullstrode. Why so many legs are needful to stand still, I cannot imagine, when I can fidget upon two. My toilette, I fancy, was worked by one of Queen Maud’s maids of honour. There is a goodly chest of drawers in the figure of a cathedral, and a looking-glass, which Rosamond or Jane Shore may have dressed their heads in.’—

‘ To follow the order of Providence in my story, I will begin with the mother of the family, a venerable matron of grave deportment, who was well educated, and moves in the form of antique ceremonies, but is really a sensible woman : the daughters are very good housewives, and I like some other qualities in them, which I understand better than their oeconomy. I only wish they could sleep in their beds in the morning, and wake in a chair in the evening : the youngest is very conversable, and the eldest, for mature deliberation, I really believe incomparable ; but as I rather want conversation than advice, she is not so agreeable to me as her sister ; but considering how well the youngest and I love talking, it is very happy the other does not, or we might want an audience which she gives us at any time.’

In another letter, discoursing on the merits of Atticus, whose life she has just studied in Plutarch, she proceeds :

‘ Perhaps I am partial to all those characters who have amused me in my time of distress. I cannot extract the least grain of entertainment out of the good family I am with ; my best friends among the living are a colony of rooks who have settled themselves in a grove by my window. They wake me early in the morning, for which I am obliged to them for some hours of reading, and some moments of reflection, of which they are the subject ! I have not yet discovered the form of their government, but I imagine it is democratical. There seems an equality of power and property, and a wonderful

agreement of opinion ; I am apt to fancy they are wise for the same reason I have thought some men and some books so, because they are solemn, and because I do not understand them. If I continue here long I shall grow a good naturalist. I have applied myself to nursing chickens, and have been forming the manners of a young eagle, but I find it a very dull scholar'—

'There are some squires here who would make admirable Polyphemus's; one of them drank tea here yesterday, and complimented me with all the force of rural gallantry ; but for some fault in the flattery or the flatterer, I liked neither him nor myself any better for all the fine things he said. After he was gone, I did but relieve my spleen with some laughter on the subject, when I was told by the matron of the family he would be a good match for a woman with twenty thousand pounds. And indeed, could one lend out one's liking upon land security, I think one might very well settle it upon him ; till that can be done I think him much the more comical subject for being rich. To laugh at a poor man is barbarous. He is a great friend to the family I am with, and I fear will come often ; and in spite of his respectable manors, and fee-simple, and ancient mansion, both great and good, I shall not be able to give a serious attention to his discourse. I wish you could see my habitation ; a right reverend and venerable one it is ; the staircase that leads to my chamber is hung with the funeral escutcheons of my grandfathers, grandmothers, aunts, and uncles, that I seem to be entering the burying vault of the family, to sleep with my fathers. It is a comfort, no doubt, to think one's ancestors have had Christian burial, but of what use are these tawdry escutcheons ?'—

'I want just such a companion as you would be, and how happy would your kind compliance with that wish make me, if the good old folks here could accommodate you ; but they are so fearful of strangers, I know it impossible to persuade them to it. They are not very fine people ; they have a small estate, and help it out with a little farming ; are very busy and careful, and the old man's cautiousness has dwindled into penuriousness, so that he eats in fear of waste and riot, sleeps with the dread of thieves, denies himself every thing, for fear of wanting any thing. Riches give him no plenty, increase no joy, prosperity no ease ; he has the curse of covetousness to want the property of his neighbours, while he dares not touch his own ; the harpy Avarice drives him from his own meat ; the sum of his wisdom and his gains will be, by living poor to die rich. To want what one has not is a necessity must be submitted to, but to want what one has, is strange policy. I would fain write the history of a miser upon his monument, as, Here lies one, who lived unloved, died unlamented, denied plenty to himself, assistance to his friends, and relief to the poor ; starved his family, oppressed his neighbours, plagued himself to gain what he could not enjoy ; at last, Death, more merciful to him than he to himself, released him from care, and his family from want ; and here he lies with the muckworm he imitated, and the dirt he loved, in fear of a resurrection, lest his heirs should have spent the money he left behind, having laid up no treasure where moth and rust do not corrupt, nor thieves break through and steal.'—

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'The woes of my friend l'Avare divert me prodigiously. The other day, meeting him in a grove, for want of something better to say, I took notice we were under the shade of fine trees; he said, yes, indeed they were brave timber, and would sell well. I said they would afford a comfortable habitation to a colony of rooks. To which, in the same vein, he answered, he loved the creatures well enough, but that they would eat the corn. I then proposed a smaller sort of guests, and said I liked a concert of little birds better: he was of opinion they would be hard put to it to get a living these hard winters. In short, I found he would not give a piece of a cabbage-leaf for the support of a caterpillar. I verily believe he would annihilate half God's works to have his granary the fuller. What a disposition of mind is this! more apt to receive pain than pleasure from every thing that is good and valuable; if in their own possession it is another cause of anxiety. if in another's, of envy. The glorious sun gives him no pleasure, because, while it ripens ten acres of corn for him, it does as much for twenty acres of his neighbours.'

If these pictures be rather overcharged, they are admirably drawn, and powerfully coloured: they make us regret that the author of them never exerted her dramatic talents in their proper place; and they fill us with high expectations of those promised letters that were written at a maturer age, in which the exuberance of her wit will have been restrained by a judgment more refined, and a taste more exercised. The present publication alone is indeed sufficient to place its author in the very first rank of English letter-writers, and nearly on a level with her namesake, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu; whom she excels in sprightliness and fancy, though she indisputably falls short of some of her other qualities. It is remarkable that neither of these ladies betrays in her correspondence any uncommon sensibility; and we will confess, for our own part, (though not without trembling,) that we are by no means the less pleased with them on that account. The perpetual display of fine feelings in familiar letters has of late become so necessary in the composition of an interesting female, that it may almost be doubted whether the opportunity of *sentimentalizing* afforded by a *small* calamity does not convert it into a blessing: but *real* feeling retires from observation; and good sense, as well as good breeding, loves to contemplate the cheerful aspect of things. Lady M. W. Montagu may indeed justly be deemed deficient in true feminine sensibility: but we consider it as a strong proof of the present writer's feelings, that no letters are found describing her emotions on becoming a wife and a mother\*, since she had the misfortune to lose her husband at

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\* At the age of 22, she married Edward Montagu, Esq. grandson of Lord Sandwich.

no distant time from her marriage, and to bury her only child in early infancy. The painful recollections naturally excited by such memorials probably impelled her to their sacrifice.

Some instances occur in these volumes, in which the same idea is repeated in different letters, and nearly in the same terms: in one or two cases so remarkably, that they might encourage the charge of a studied affectation of saying *a smart thing*, accompanied by an unlucky shortness of memory (the concomitant, indeed, of wit,) which prevented the remembrance that it had been said before.

We shall here only add that we wait with impatience for the opportunity of inspecting the remaining volumes of this collection, which the editor announces.

ART. IX. *Elements of Agriculture*; being an Essay towards establishing the Cultivation of the Soil, and promoting Vegetation on steady Principles. By John Naismith, Author of the General View of the Agriculture of Clydesdale, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 543. 10s. 6d. Boards. Baldwins.

VEGETABLES, as well as animals, are possessed of vitality, by means of which they are enabled to act on surrounding bodies in a way peculiar to themselves, and which does not appear to be analogous to any of the known laws, either physical or chemical, to which inanimate matter is subject:—but, though this be admitted to be the case, the changes themselves that are produced are chemical changes, and may be traced and examined by employing the established principles of chemical affinity. On this account, the agriculturist, who is anxious to improve his art, may fairly look for assistance from the chemist; because, though he can seldom exactly imitate the changes which he observes to take place, he has it frequently in his power to make some approach to them, and to dispose the external circumstances in such a way as to render the transition more easy. The author of the volume before us, being impressed with this view of the subject, has exercised a degree of perseverance in the acquisition of science which is very unusual with persons of his profession; and he has succeeded in making himself a good chemist, as far at least as this title is due to one who is acquainted only with the labours of others: for with respect to the original experiments that are mentioned in this work, they consist merely in the application of different substances to portions of earth, for the purpose of observing their effect on vegetation, and are rather to be referred

referred to the head of agricultural than to that of chemical processes.

The subject naturally divides itself into two parts; the first containing an account of the general principles of chemistry, and more particularly of all those branches which are connected with vegetation; the second being the application of these principles and facts to the immediate objects of practice. These two parts occupy about equal portions of the volume; and as they are kept distinct by the author, we shall follow his plan, and consider them separately. — In the view which he gives of chemical science, Mr. Naismith is not a mere copyist. His arrangement is to a certain extent original; and, though somewhat affected by the late discoveries of Mr. Davy, it is not without merit, and possesses some advantages.

‘The first part will comprehend the following heads:—

‘I. A short description of the substances which, according to the present state of knowledge, are held to be simple and elementary, especially of such as are agents in vegetation, or form component parts of vegetable beings;

‘II. A short view of the combinations of those simple substances in compound bodies, with the effects they produce on vegetable life;

‘III. An examination of the mineral and aerial kingdoms, principally with respect to the ingredients of soils, and the aid which the atmosphere affords to vegetation;

‘IV. A general view of the vegetable kingdom.’

What the author calls *simple substances* are subdivided in the following manner; invisible fluids, pure inflammable bodies, earths, metals, and lastly, ‘bodies somewhat anomalous, and differing from all these.’ Under the head of invisible fluids, he comprehends caloric and light; a classification which we think may be fairly admitted, and may at least be deemed a more proper designation of them than that which is assigned by Dr. Thomson, viz. imponderable bodies. Sulphur, phosphorus, and carbon, although no longer intitled to the appellation of simple substances, are so closely united in their properties as naturally to fall into the same part of the system. The earth and metals keep their situation: but to the 5th division, of anomalous bodies, we must object, as not affording a proper character for classification. The fact of their differing from other bodies, though it is a sufficient ground for their being separated from those bodies, is no reason for their being placed together. This circumstance affords an additional illustration of a remark which we have so frequently had occasion to make, on the inconsistencies into which writers on scientific subjects are led by their determination to reduce every thing to an artificial system of arrangement.

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Indeed, the error is so universal, that we cannot very severely blame any individual who falls into it ; since, when the great master of arrangement, Linné, has himself permitted this false principle to enter into his systems, what can be expected from even the most enlightened of his disciples ?

The account which Mr. Naismith gives of the different substances thus enumerated is, for the most part, clear and correct. He appears to be acquainted with the modern discoveries in chemistry, except those of Mr. Davy, which were only in progress at the time of his publication ; and his details are conveyed in a perspicuous and easy manner. We have indeed noticed a few inaccuracies ; such as that, when speaking of the effects of oxygen on vegetable life, he does not distinguish between the germination of seeds, and the growth of plants ; and when he observes that oxygen ' gives strength to the stem by forming the ligneous fibre,' he is certainly straying too far into mere hypothesis. We think that he is much too decisive in his disapprobation of Dr. Priestley's opinion respecting the importance of azot in vegetation ; we are aware of the contradictory experiments that have been adduced on this question : but, if we were compelled to take a side, it would be rather for than against the Doctor.—Mr. N. also commits a slight inaccuracy, when he says that bones are composed of phosphorus and lime ; because, although phosphorus is procured from bones, it never exists in them, except in the state of an acid. His observations on the comparative effects of lime and magnesia on vegetation are important, and, if correct, would overthrow what appeared to be a fair deduction from Mr. Tennant's experiments. Mr. Naismith thinks that both these substances are hurtful when employed in improper situations, or in excessive quantity, but that magnesia is not essentially injurious.

Mr. N. then proceeds to take a view of the more compound substances, oils, acids, and different kinds of salts ; and he especially considers their effect on vegetation. Several writers, and those of respectability, have been induced to suppose that these bodies are favourable to the growth of plants ; yet we think that Mr. Naismith is correct in maintaining the contrary opinion. Water appears to be the only exception, and on this subject much uncertainty still prevails. The mode in which water acts, whether it be decomposed and what becomes of its constituents, whether plants can be nourished by water alone, in what form it enters into the vessels of the plant, and other points of a similar nature, are questions which all remain in such a state as to require farther elucidation. The present author supposes that water promotes the growth of  
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vegetables



vegetables only when it is presented to them in a state of minute division ; and that, when it exists in too large a quantity, it is destructive to the life of the plant. A most important question on this subject is, in what way does the soil contribute to the growth of vegetables ? Does it merely afford a mechanical vehicle for the water to be brought in contact with the roots, or do the particles of the soil enter the plant, and become part of its substance ? These are inquiries to which, in the present state of science, we think that no more than a conjectural answer can be given ; and it is still almost entirely from conjecture that we are able to assign any reason why one piece of land is more fertile than another ; since we observe soils to be equally productive, though they differ considerably in those circumstances to which we are inclined to attribute this quality. Mr. N. considers the opinion of Hassenfratz as the most plausible. According to that philosopher, the grand source of vegetable nutriment consists in carbon, which is dissolved by water, or suspended in it in a state of minute division ; and on the proper supply of carbon, and the action which it afterward undergoes, depends the fitness of any stratum for the support of vegetation.—On the physiology of plants we have found Mr. Naismith less informed than in the chemical part of his work ; and when we say that he appears to be entirely unacquainted with Mr. Knight's papers on this point, our readers will deem it unnecessary for us to enter on any minute critique of his opinions.

Having discussed the principles of chemical science as they respect the subjects of this essay, the author proceeds in Part II. to an application of these principles to the various branches of rural industry ; trying the different practices which custom has established, by such standards as late discoveries have furnished :

‘ This part will be thus divided into the three following heads ;

‘ I. The labours necessary to give the soil the fit texture and consistence for the admission of the roots of cultivated vegetables ; and for holding water in that state of minute division requisite to support the vegetation of land plants, by furnishing the oxygen and hydrogen of which it is compounded.

‘ II. The means of storing the soil with a sufficient quantity of soluble carbon, the third considerable ingredient of vegetables.

‘ III. The aid which may be obtained from other bodies either for the amendment of the soil, or the better preparation of the food contained in it.’

Since, however, some preparatory steps must generally precede the immediate culture of the soil, such as inclosing, sheltering

sheltering and freeing it from superfluous moisture, Mr. N. first devotes two distinct chapters to those subjects ; after which, in chapters 3, 4 and 5, he treats of the preparation of the soil, of preparing soluble carbon, and of the aid which may be obtained from other bodies in promoting fertility. These introductory chapters may be necessary in an elementary work : but, finding nothing in them particularly to detain us, we shall hasten to those in which the importance of the doctrines laid down in the first part are practically illustrated.

In the chapter on *the preparation of the soil*, it is recommended to torrify cohesive soils in order to render them friable, and the principle of the practice is thus explained : ‘ Torrefaction not only destroys the cohesion of clay, but expels from the orange oxyd of iron the carbonic acid, which is the cause of its being hurtful to vegetation, and converts it into the innocent red acid.’

To the vegetable substance called Peat, or Peat Moss, which abounds in the northern part of our island, Mr. N. has given great attention ; and the experiments which he subjoins, to illustrate the methods of cultivating it with effect, are not unworthy of notice. The corollaries which result from them we shall insert :

‘ 1st. When the original conformation of peat, incorruptible in its native state, is deranged by smothered combustion, or by the intervention of extraneous substances among its interstices, the carbon it contains becomes soluble in water, and feeds cultivated vegetables.

‘ 2d. The primitive earths, which are ingredients in other soils, are also necessary in peat, not only for subduing its resistance to solution, but for affording the solidity requisite to permanent fertility.

‘ 3d. Lime differing widely in its qualities from the other earths occurring on the surface, is not capable of rendering peat soluble, unless a mixture of these earths be conjoined : but, along with them, increases fertility by facilitating the decomposition of the vegetable substance, and making the composition of the soil more perfect.

‘ 4th. Cohesive earth, which has undergone torrefaction, such as brick-dust, is of all others the most powerful solvent of peat.

‘ After what has been above stated, it is hoped that the means of reclaiming fields of peat will appear not to be intricate or mysterious.’

The author endeavours to refute the reasons commonly adduced in favour of summer-fallowing, and prefers the drill system ; not, however, forgetting to remark that this mode of culture cannot be incessantly pursued, and that recourse must be had to an alternation of tillage and grass-crops.

‘ The derangement of that happy medium between the extremes of too great friability and compactness, which I have all along endeavoured

deavoured to shew is essential to the general purposes of vegetation, is the unavoidable consequence of long repeated tillage. This is always in some degree restored when land is left to rest. If it has been properly treated when in tillage, and well stocked with perennial herbage, when left to rest, it will quickly assume a close cover over its surface, which, from whatever principle it proceeds, experience has always shewn, has a powerful influence in disposing the soil to fertility. In this state the washing to which tillage lands are exposed, in times of rain, is completely suspended, and the water flows away limpid. While the ground continues covered with a close turf, the root-leaves of the herbage, spreading over the surface, absorb and digest the carbonic acid of the atmosphere, and perhaps also earthy particles, which probably float continually in the air. As those leaves are smothered and decay, they are perpetually increasing the stock of carbon and vegetable mould.

Practical remarks, of some importance, are afforded in the long chapter *on the preparation of soluble Carbon for the nourishment of vegetables*. Mr. Naismith enumerates, 1st, the substances from which soluble carbon may be obtained; 2dly, the means of preparing those substances; and 3dly, the methods of applying them to the soil. He observes that the principal source of carbonaceous food for growing vegetables will be the excrement of live-stock, mixed with their offal and litter: he therefore advises that as large a quantity of live-stock as can well be supported should always be kept on a farm; and that, when adventitious manure cannot be obtained, the straw of a farm should never be sold. The advantages of lime and of irrigation in affording carbon are specified. When the fact occurs to our recollection, that 'no greater proportion of the surface, which has been already under culture, can be kept in a productive state for tillage-crops, than can be stored, by the united skill and industry of the husbandmen of the nation, with a sufficient quantity of carbonaceous substances, (the real food of growing vegetables,) and that money cannot purchase these beyond a certain extent,' we must be convinced that agricultural improvements have their limits, and shall perceive the wisdom of the following suggestion:

If every husbandman would diligently attend to all those means which are within his reach, and never keep a greater proportion of his farm under tillage culture than he could command manure to keep in good condition, regularly going over one field after another, so that each might have its due share, and laying every field in grass, before its carbon were exhausted by tillage-crops, probably the fertility of the country, so far from diminishing, would be progressively advancing.

In treating of the means of preparing and of the mode of applying carbonaceous substances, Mr. N. contends that 'it is  
infrugal

infrugal and absurd to consume dung by submitting it to all the force of what is called a complete fermentation, before it be committed to the soil.' He recommends also *frequent* in preference to *large* dressings of manure.

The last chapter of this work, which notices *those other bodies which either directly support vegetation, correct the soil, or prepare the vegetable food contained in it*, is divided into three sections,—on the aeriform fluids by which vegetation is influenced,—on the insoluble solids which affect the fertility of the soil,—and on the soluble solids by which the contents of the soil are affected; the first including caloric and light, atmospheric air, oxygen, nitrogen, and hydrogen; the second, lime, magnesia, and the insoluble salts; and the third, the fixed alkalies, and the salifiable earths. Under each of these heads, sensible hints occur for the direction of the agriculturist.

On the whole, it is the object of this writer to render our knowledge of chemistry subservient to farming, and to establish certain fixed principles as guides in its several processes and operations. His general observations manifest his solicitude for the internal improvement of the country; and his objections to large farms certainly possess considerable weight.

**ART. X.** *Travels in Asia and Africa*: including a Journey from Scanderoon to Aleppo. and over the Desert to Bagdad and Bussora; a Voyage from Bussora to Bombay, and along the Western Coast of India; a Voyage from Bombay to Mocha and Suez in the Red Sea; and a Journey from Suez to Cairo and Rosetta in Egypt. By the late Abraham Parsons, Esq. Consul and Factor-Marine at Scanderoon. 4to. pp. 346. 1l. 5s. Boards. Longman and Co.

**A**LTHOUGH these travels have been recently published, they were performed between thirty and forty years ago, having been begun in 1772, and brought to a close in 1778. It is natural to inquire the causes of so unusual a delay; and the editor endeavours to anticipate the questions of his readers by an explanatory notice, in which he mentions the decease of the author before he had prepared the MS. for the press, as the original source of procrastination. On Mr. Parsons's death, the MS. devolved, by bequest, to his brother-in-law, the Rev. John Berjew, of Bristol. How long it remained in his possession we are not apprized: but it does not appear that his labours in regard to editing went farther than the easy task of recommending to his son to do what he had not done himself. The son, 'desirous to comply with the wishes of a much respected father,' undertakes the charge of editor, and laments that

that professional avocations should have so long retarded the fulfilment of his duty. To judge from the period that has elapsed, we should naturally conclude that some Herculean labour had devolved on the editor: but this, on the other hand, we are prevented from thinking by his own explanations, when he tells us that 'the only liberty he has taken with the narrative has been confined to the correction of verbal or grammatical inaccuracies, and in some very few instances to the altering of the arrangement of sentences, which, in the original, appeared rather obscure.' All this, in our humble opinion, was practicable in the course of a few months, instead of the *twenty-three years* which elapsed between the death of Mr. Parsons and the publication of his MS. Whatever, therefore, may have been the veneration of Mr. P.'s relatives for his memory, we cannot pay them the compliment of having felt a very ardent solicitude for the dissemination of his fame as a traveller and an author.

Mr. Parsons's history is given briefly in the preface:

'He was originally bred to the navy, in which his father was a captain. In the earlier part of his life he commanded different vessels in the merchants' service, during which period he visited several parts of the globe; a pursuit particularly adapted to the turn of a mind naturally fond of novelty, and remarkably inquisitive. When he quitted the sea, he carried on considerable commerce as a merchant in Bristol, which, not being attended with the desired success, after some years, he was obliged to relinquish. After this he was, in the year 1767, appointed by the Turkey Company Consul and Factor-marine at Scanderoon, in Asiatic Turkey; a situation which, after a residence of six years, he was obliged, from the unhealthiness of the country, to resign, when he commenced a voyage of commercial speculation; the narrative of which is contained in the following pages. Soon after the conclusion of this tour he retired to Leghorn, where he died in the year 1785.'

A perusal of the work, even at this late period, has convinced us of the propriety of publishing it, and has afforded us a degree of satisfaction of which we should have been sorry to have been deprived. The observations of six years of travelling are here given to the world in the pains-taking way of a man of business, who notes down whatever he deems worthy of recollection, and conveys his information in plain and unambitious language. The book is, therefore, a journal of what the writer saw and did in the course of a progress through countries celebrated among former generations, and is not devoid of interest to the present: but, while it possesses the fidelity and perspicuity of a journal, it is marked by those deficiencies which we may expect in so plain a species of narrative. It contains

contains few reflections of any length, and still fewer comparisons between the opinions of the writer and the reports of former travellers. Though Mr. Parsons did not go so far as Kotzebue, in purposely avoiding to read books on the subject of the countries which he visited, his travels bespeak the man of business more than the man of letters, and afford us the result of actual observation without much benefit from disquisition or research.

In reviewing a work so slightly characterized by original thought, and consisting of a series of local observations without application to general conclusions, the critic finds little opportunity of entering on the field of literary discussion; his functions being confined to an explanation of the plan of the book, and to an exhibition of specimens of its execution, sufficiently varied to afford an idea of the value of the author's matter, and of the style in which that matter is conveyed. The most interesting parts are the account of Syria, the journey to Aleppo, and the navigation of the Euphrates; and from these we shall accordingly make our extracts:

*Modern Syria.*—Scanderoon was built by order of Alexander the Great after the battle of Issus, and was about a mile and a half to the south of the present town, close to the hills; or rather, part of the city was on the hills, which, for some space, are of easy ascent, and covered with a fertile soil. The foundations to a great extent are visible in many places; some stone walls, 8 feet thick, are yet breast high; and near the center of those remains is the celebrated well called Jacob's Well, or Fountain, which gushes out from under a rocky hill into a channel almost level with the plain, seemingly made by art in the solid rock, 11 feet long, 14 inches broad, and 30 inches deep: the current of water fills up 25 inches of the depth; it runs with great velocity, and the inhabitants say its stream has always been the same. A French gentleman (well versed in hydraulics) some time since computed, that 6 tuns of water ran off in every minute of time.—‘The Jews have a tradition, that at this fountain, Jacob, the grandson of Abraham, watered his flocks, and pitched his tents in the plain for a great length of time, which is the reason it has always been called after, and still retains his name.’—‘The Turkish and Greek ships which come to Scanderoon, always take their water for the voyage from this well, nor will any person at Scanderoon drink any other.’—‘The present town consists of about 170 houses occupied by Greeks, and about 15 more by Turks; the whole number of inhabitants scarcely amounts to 800. The houses are all built of stone, with only a ground-floor, the roofs are flat, on which the natives sleep in hot weather; there is a small yard or garden to each house. When caravans with goods come from Aleppo, the place exhibits the appearance of a fair until their departure; there have been in these last four years 68 caravans from that city, consisting of from 250 to 2000 camels in a caravan, besides

beside mules and horses.'—'As this place is the only thoroughfare from Asia Minor into Syria, large bodies of soldiers often pass this way, who halt on the plain near the town, always one night, sometimes more; and if not restrained by their officers, commit many violences on the poor Greeks, who must bear all with seeming patience, or be well drubbed.'

A few miles from Scanderoon, are the celebrated passes from Cilicia into Syria, by which the confused host of Darius escaped, after the overthrow at Issus. They are thus described by Mr. Parsons :

‘There are four passes, the first and third are artificial, the second and fourth natural. The greatest part of the road, after the ascent begins, is steep and rugged, which continues for about half an hour's ride, then you arrive at a level spot of about 400 yards extent, which leads to the descent of a very steep stony hill: at the bottom of which is a very fine shady grove, and a small plain about 100 yards over, the trees of which are so lofty, and so close to each other, that no sun-beams can penetrate them: with a constant stream of excellent water, to which the birds in summer flock in such numbers, that it is difficult to determine whether their singing or the murmuring of the water is most delightful; nothing can excel their union.’—‘After passing this shady grove, the ascent is gradual for about half an hour, and then very steep for a quarter of an hour more, which leads to a path of about 20 yards, where only one camel or horse can pass at a time. This is called the first and least difficult pass into Syria. Soon afterward, the road is rugged and very steep, which continues full half an hour, when the second pass commences, which is formed by a steep rocky mountain on the left, and a precipice on the right; this path is not more than 7 feet in the broadest part, or more than 100 yards in length. I plumed the precipice, and found it to be 27 yards deep, with a rugged rocky bottom, and of so terrible an aspect, that it is believed that none but the horses and camels of the country would have courage to pass, and yet they have no other road.’—‘After passing this precipice is a winding and rugged hill, very steep, of about 400 yards ascent; on the summit is a small plain, at the end of which commences the third pass, which is cut through a very high and rocky mountain, so very steep, that to ascend or descend it the horses, camels, &c. are obliged to make a zig-zag track. The pass itself is crooked, about 20 feet wide, and from the top to the bottom 207 yards.’—‘Passing still on to the south, after leaving the town of Bylan, commences the fourth and last pass into Syria, which, by way of distinction, is called the grand pass. Here the road is not more than 10 feet wide in some places, or than 15 in any part, with the mountain to the left, and a parapet wall of about four feet high to the right, from which is seen the most horrible precipice that can be imagined; this chasm, between two high mountains, is from 40 to 50 fathoms deep. This road, with its wall, continues more than a mile in length before it expands, the steep mountain and deep chasm accompanying it all the way.’

Dr. Pococke's description of the ruins of Seleucia induced Mr. Parsons to visit them, and to bestow considerable pains on a comparison of the Doctor's statement with their present condition: but he found that either things must have altered greatly since 1739, or the Doctor must have trusted too much to report, since Mr. P. was unable to discover many of the objects noticed by the former. Our limits do not permit us to discuss this point, and we must content ourselves with Mr. Parsons's account of the modern condition of Seleucia and Laodicea:

'The situation of Seleucia is most delightful; the greatest part lies on a hill of easy ascent, with a beautiful plain, and as beautiful a river beneath, with an extensive land and sea prospect: it is defended by hills from the bleak winds in the north-eastern quarter, and has a fine port, only four miles distant, at the extremity of the plain; it has much the advantage of Antioch, whose port was more than 20 miles distant, nor has Antioch any sea prospect; but in lieu of this, a lake in front, of many miles extent, which, in summer, is now almost as noxious as the stagnated waters in the plain of Scanderoon.'—'In every part of Turkey in Europe, in the islands of the Archipelago, in Asia Minor, in the towns of Byass, Scanderoon, Bylan, and all the other towns and villages on the Bylan mountains, in the plains of Antioch and Seleucia, and their neighbourhood, quite to the Orontes, the language of the country is either Turkish or Greek. There are few Greeks of any consequence on the continent who do not speak the Turkish language, and most Turkish gentlemen understand Arabic, but very few, if any, speak or understand Greek.'—'Latachia (the ancient Laodicea) is said to have been built by Selencus, and so called in honour of his mother, Laodicea: it is at present a large, well-built, and populous city, but by the vestiges remaining, it seems to have been formerly more than three times its present size. The town is most pleasantly situated on a hill, with the port and marine town beneath it: the haven formerly was deep, and could contain securely more than 100 ships of burthen; but it has been so shamefully neglected by the Turks, that at present none but barks and small ships can get so far into it as to lie secure from hard gales of wind, as it is nearly choked up with sand: ships of any burthen must lie at the mouth of the port in about 15 feet water, with their heads to the sea. The road is much exposed to all winds from the western quarter, but the ground is good. This place is famous for producing the best tobacco in Turkey.'

Aleppo, the capital of Syria, and second to no city in the Turkish dominions except Constantinople, either for beauty or extent, is described by Mr. Parsons at considerable length. Its walls are eight miles in circumference; they are high, and have, at the distance of every forty or fifty yards, a tower with embrasures. As the Turks keep no registers, and treat with ridicule all inquiries about population, it is impossible to calculate



culate the number of inhabitants. The air is dry and pure, and, from the vicinity of high mountains, much colder in winter than the latitude would induce us to expect. In summer it is very hot, but not unhealthy :

‘ The streets, which are broader than any in Turkey, are kept clean, as people from the gardens come every morning, with mules or asses furnished with panniers, in which, after sweeping the streets, they carry off the dung and dirt to manure their gardens. They are likewise well paved and strait ; the channels in the middle are broad and shallow. The bazars, or markets, are streets near the center of the city, strongly arched over, with apertures on the sides of the arches, so situated as to give sufficient light, and at the same time exclude the sun and rain. Each bazar is occupied by one sort of trade only, as they do not mix with each other in the same bazar ; for example, the boot and slipper makers occupy three streets ; box-makers, (including trunk-makers) two ; coppersmiths, one, &c.’ — ‘ In all there are to be seen immense quantities of the richest goods from India, Constantinople, Smyrna, Damascus, and other places, besides the various manufactures of Aleppo ; all of which constitute an immense value.’ — ‘ The bazars have very strong iron gates, which are not only placed at each end, but on the sides of such of them as have avenues into others, or into any street adjoining ; so that in some of the longest of the bazars may be seen six iron gates ; in others fewer. As an additional security, over every gate is placed a massy and strong portcullis ; one comfort they have, there is no fear of fire, their houses being of stone, and the floors arched. The handicrafts and shopkeepers repair to the bazars at sun-rise, or a little after, then open their shops, send for their coffee, and smoke a pipe, and every one follows his occupation ; about eleven they breakfast in their shops, which is either sent from their own houses or from the cooks’-shops ; after which they remain, in summer, till about five in the evening (some not so long), and in the winter until about four ; then, locking up their shops, they go home to dinner, and indulge themselves with a pipe and coffee ; at which time the keepers of the bazars lock the gates, and remain themselves on the inside.’ — ‘ The roofs of all the houses at Aleppo are flat, and terraced over, and have high parapet walls to separate them from the adjoining ones : on these roofs it is customary for the inhabitants to walk, and enjoy the cool of the evening, in the summer months. Most of the natives, and many of the Frank merchants sleep all the summer on the roofs without receiving any injury to their health ; I speak from experience.’ — ‘ The French, English, Italians, and Dutch, live here as comfortably as in any foreign factory whatever, as there is always a good harmony subsisting between them, and even if their countries are at war at home, they not only live peaceably, but amicably here ; with this difference only, that the consuls of the belligerent powers cannot visit each other publicly.’

*Journey from Aleppo to Bagdad.* — In March 1774, Mr. Parsons set out on a mercantile expedition from Aleppo to Bagdad,

dad, in company with a number of Turkish merchants, forming altogether a caravan of nearly 800 camels, richly laden. Their escort consisted of a sheik and 105 subaltern officers and soldiers, comprizing some from every tribe in the desert. These, as well as the merchants, were completely armed, each having a musket, a pair of pistols, and a sabre; while the men in attendance on the camels, amounting to the number of 150, had each a sabre and a brace of pistols. This force was altogether rather formidable; and, though they performed their journey without encountering any open hostility, they saw reason to be convinced that their safety was owing to their power of repelling violence. Above a fourth part of their camels were required for the conveyance of the provisions, water, and camp equipage; the others carried the merchandise. Owing to several causes, the caravan occupied five weeks in reaching the ferry of Annah on the Euphrates, a journey which is generally performed in *three* weeks. After having crossed this great river, the travellers were on the territory of the Pacha of Bagdad, and were enabled to dismiss a part of their escort. We are informed, under the date of 22d April, that

‘Yesterday our sheik paid off 42 of his soldiers, who, after a feast given them, crossed over the ferry, and went to their several homes. These men hire themselves as soldiers to guard the caravans which go to and from Aleppo to Bagdad, but approach no nearer Bagdad than this ferry.’—‘For this they are paid 30 piastres (three pounds fifteen shillings English), each man, on the caravan’s arrival at Aleppo, and the same sum on its arrival on this side of the ferry. These poor fellows march on foot the whole way, as well as the cameliers. The sheik finds them provisions the whole time, which are pillaw, made of boiled rice and butter, once a day, or wheat boiled and butter; besides which, once a day, they are served with brown biscuit and onions, which they put in their pockets, and eat as they march. The caravans which go to and from Damascus to Bagdad are accompanied in the same manner, but each man is paid 40 piastres. A caravan cannot pass the desert in safety without hiring Arabs of each of the tribes which inhabit the borders; so that when any horde of Arabs meets a caravan, they are sure to find some of their own tribe as guards. All then is safe, otherwise it is sure to be robbed, if not entirely carried off; for if the first horde which came was not strong enough, they would send an express to procure assistance, and in the mean time hover about in such a manner as to prevent an escape. It is the custom with such Arabs as rob on the desert, not to kill any person who does not make resistance; but to those who do, if they overcome, they give no quarter. From those who quietly suffer themselves to be robbed they never take their all, but leave them sufficient to pursue their journey, and often times much more.’

At the distance of six hours’ travelling from Bagdad, on this side of that city, are the remains of the Tower of Babel.  
They

They stand in a vast plain, which is a mere desert, and are still about 220 feet in height:

• The materials of the little remains of this once-famed tower, are unburnt bricks\*, (now as hard as stone,) which in dimensions are 14 inches by 10. and nearly 5 inches thick; there is not any cement between them, either of bitumen or mortar. About the distance of every four feet, from the bottom to the top, are layers of reeds, four inches thick; by digging about 10 or 12 inches into one of these, I pulled out by degrees a handful of them, which are as firm and sound (except their being pressed flat), as they were when first inserted; which the Jew rabbies at Bagdad tell me, according to a tradition of their's, is very near four thousand and two hundred years. They all call it Nimrod's Tower.'

Mr. Parsons computes the distance from Aleppo to Bagdad at 900 miles. He arrived in the latter city on the 7th of May, a season in which the waters of the Tigris are nearly at their height; and he was greatly surprised at their rapidity, which brought to his recollection the ebb through London-bridge in a spring-tide, the rate of the current seeming to be seven miles in an hour. His attention was much occupied, during the season which he passed at Bagdad, by the rise and fall of this celebrated river. It continued on the increase till the middle of June, having risen between two and three feet in this interval: but, after that period, it decreased, and had fallen 44 inches by the end of the month. In July, its decrease was rapid, the fall of the water being 17 feet, and the diminution of the current two miles in an hour, leaving it at a rate of four miles. In August the water fell *nine*, and in September *two* feet, the current on the 30th of September being only, a mile and a half in an hour. This was the lowest; so that the two extremes, in regard to velocity, were seven miles and one mile and a half: with respect to depth of water, under the centre of the bridge, the extremes were 14 feet and 46 feet; making a difference between June and September of 32 feet. In October, the river begins again to rise, and continues progressively on the increase till the succeeding June, when the rains among the hills towards the north are generally suspended. The prevalence of westerly winds, and the rapidity of the current, prevent the navigation of the Tigris from the sea to Bagdad during half of the year. At this time, it is customary to bring goods up the less rapid current of the Euphrates as far as the town of Helah, and thence across Mesopotamia by camels to Bagdad. Above Bagdad, the principal place of traffic on the

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\* Strabo says that the tower was constructed of baked brick, *ἰπτα κλιθος*. Rev.

Tigris is Mosul, built near the ruins of the antient Nineveh. The width of the Tigris at Bagdad is similar to that of the Thames at London-bridge. The bridge at Bagdad is formed of boats which are sharp in the bows, like a London wherry, on account of the velocity of the stream. At each end of the chain of boats, two immense walls of brick are projected into the river, and serve as jetty-heads. Two massy iron chains are extended from one side of the river to the other; the links of which are as thick as a man's wrist, and are fastened to the bows of the boats, so as to prevent them from being driven down by the stream. The removal of boats, either for the passage of rafts, or for the purpose of repair, is managed with considerable dexterity.

Bagdad is the grand depository for the produce of India, Persia, and Turkey, and has a continual intercourse by caravans with each of these countries. It is consequently a very large and populous city, containing three or four hundred thousand inhabitants.

‘The streets (says Mr. Parsons) are all built in a strait line and paved, excepting the bazars. The houses make no appearance on the outside, as nothing is to be seen except brick walls and lattice windows; yet the principal ones are very commodious, and have all subterraneous apartments arched, and ornamented with handsome stucco-work, to which the families retire about ten in the morning, where they dine, and remain until an-hour before sun-set. In the months of June, July, and August, to avoid the excessive hot weather, every one sleeps at night on the terrace, on the tops of the houses, as the subterranean apartments are at that time very-hot, although they are cool in the heat of the day. The air at Bagdad is so hot in these three months, that the mutton and fowls which are killed early in the morning, if not eaten by noon, become putrid. The butchers and poulterers kill their meat twice a day, so that it has hardly time to cool before it is dressed: yet, notwithstanding, this hot wind is not sickly, but the reverse, as there is not a more healthy place in any part of the world.’—‘The water of the Tigris is most excellent, so much superior to spring or well-water, that the poorest person in the city will not deign to taste of either, although there are wells in the yards of most houses.’—‘Coffee-houses are so numerous, that it excited my curiosity to enquire if there was any method of knowing the real number. I was told nothing was more easy, as they were all registered, paying an annual sum for their licence. A friend was so kind as to go with me to the office, when I found the number then occupied to be 955, and of those untenanted 490, which the officer hoped to see all opened within a year.’

*Navigation of the Euphrates and Persian Gulf.*—From Bagdad, Mr. Parsons determined to proceed to the Persian Gulf, and accordingly crossed Mesopotamia in a south-east direction till he reached the town of Helah on the Euphrates. This place, distant

distant only three miles from the ruins of Babylon, contains thirty thousand inhabitants, and is an *entrepôt* of considerable traffic, chiefly with the great city of Bussora, which is situated two hundred leagues farther down the river. The navigation of the Euphrates, though less dangerous than in the great and impetuous stream of the Tigris, is attended with much labour. The most striking circumstances in the course of it are the narrowness of the channel, within which the Euphrates is confined for a considerable part of the distance; and the beautiful situation of Korna, the town at which the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates takes place and forms what is afterward called the great river of Arabia. This navigation occupied the traveller eight days, and is related by him in the form of a journal. We select detached passages:

‘On the 3d of November we hired a vessel of sixty tons, which they call a *teknar*, for which we gave two hundred piastres, to carry us to Bussora, and we permitted about seventy Turks, who were well armed, to accompany us gratis, as we were glad of their company, from the frequent examples of vessels being plundered by Arabian banditti, who hover about the banks of the river.’—‘We were disturbed with the cries and howling of the jackals, which are very numerous, and many of them would come within a stone’s throw of the boat; on firing a few musquets they went away. They look like our fox dogs in England, and are of a reddish colour, while those which I have seen in Syria and Asia Minor are of a mouse colour, and not more than half as large.’—‘November 5. The river now became very narrow and crooked, and consequently the current so rapid that our vessel was quite ungovernable, and we were often set with violence, sometimes against one promontory, and in less than two minutes against another on the opposite shore, and so, alternately, with such violence, as shattered the upper parts of our vessel very much. The water, however, close to the banks on each side, which were of earth and soft, being deep, our vessel weathered the danger. Our sailors, who were 34 in number, rowed with their utmost exertion to get clear of each cape, but to no purpose, from the rapidity of the current, and the narrowness and frequent curves of the river, which seemed hourly to increase. Its breadth was not above 70 yards.’—‘On the 7th we saw three large boats tracking up the river; they had been 24 days from Bussora, and my companions say that they will be at least 30 days more before they arrive at Helah. What a difference! when we consider that it is only four days since we left it. At eight this evening we saw a small advice boat with eight oars; she had been only eight days from Bussora, and expected to get to Helah in eight days more; there was an officer in her who was going express from the musolem (governor) of Bussora to the pasha of Bagdad.’—‘On the 9th we came to the camp of the most potent Arab prince on the shore of the Euphrates, or Persian Gulph; it is full three miles in length along the banks of the river. I am told there are above 8,000 tents and 20,000 families;

miles; the tent of the prince is near 200 feet long and 70 broad. This encampment reaches farther inland than it does along the banks of the river; it is said to contain near 80,000 inhabitants, and the cattle of all kinds belonging to it are almost innumerable. We all went on shore here, and walked about an hour. The tents are pitched so as to form regular streets of 18 to 25 feet broad, which run parallel to each other from the river, quite through the town, with others at right angles in a line with the river, the largest tents being nearest to the river.—‘This tribe is famous for breeding horses of the best race: the Turks with us regretted their not having brought an empty boat from Hielah, as they could have made a good profit by buying horses, and selling them at Bussora, from whence they are shipped for India, where they sell at great prices.’—On the 10th we arrived at Korna, a large town situated on the extreme point of Mesopotamia, so as to be on the banks of both Euphrates and Tigris; the point facing the great Arabian river, (so called from the union of both at this place.) On this point the custom-house is built, where we were ordered to make fast our vessel. It is a most delightful situation, and the Turks verily believe that this is the spot where the paradise of our first parents was situated.—‘Every tree, as well as the grass, being clothed with verdure, no place on earth appears to be more delightfully situated than Korna. It is not surprising that the Turks think it to have been Paradise; for my own part I think it such, compared with all other places which I have yet seen. Before it is the great river, without the least winding, extending further than the eye can reach; the Tigris and Euphrates washing its banks; Persia and Arabia in view for more than 30 miles, both which are in the pride of nature even at this late season of the year; blest with an atmosphere than which nothing can be more pure, as indeed that of Assyria, Chaldea, and Mesopotamia, is in general.’

The merchants of Bussora are a mixture of Turks, Christians, Armenians, and Jews. The commerce of this city is great; its situation, within forty leagues of the Persian Gulf, being very happily adapted for receiving the produce of the East through the Gulf, and distributing it afterward by land and water-carriage throughout the Turkish dominions. The city stands on a creek distant three miles from the great Arabian river, and is unhealthy during the summer-months, in consequence of the heat and the effluvia from stagnant water. Its population is supposed to amount to between two and three hundred thousand. It was during Mr. Parsons's visit to Bussora, in the spring of 1775, that the Persians, under Sadoc Khan, commenced the blockade and siege of that city; which, after a gallant defence of twelve months, was obliged to surrender.

Mr. P. next visited Bushear, the principal sea-port in the Persian side of the Gulf, and containing about 20,000 inhabitants. The town lies so low as scarcely to be discernible  
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at a distance : but the castle, situated about twelve miles south-east of the town, and built by the Portuguese, makes, even in its decayed state, a noble appearance from the sea. The Portuguese were forced to abandon this fortress to Shah Abbas the Great, in the same year in which that sovereign, with the assistance of the English, retook from them Ormus and Gomberoon.

After having sailed down the Persian Gulf, and entered what is commonly called the Arabian sea, Mr. Parsons arrived at Muscat in Arabia ; a safe and capacious harbour, in the shape of a horse-shoe ; and which, having the entrance from the south-east, is protected by the surrounding hills from the winds which are dangerous in that latitude. It is the capital of the Arabian kingdom of the same name ; and, besides supplying the interior of Arabia with Indian merchandise, it serves as a magazine for Persia, and has considerable intercourse with the Red Sea.

From Muscat, the writer proceeded to India, and sailed along the western side of our Indian empire. Of this part of the book, the most interesting passage is his account of Surat. The crowded state of that city demonstrates that its population must be great ; the number he found it impossible to ascertain, but he computed it to amount to 400,000. During his residence there, (in 1777,) Mr. Bolts, afterward known in the literary world by his vehement attack on our East India Company, was trafficking in the neighbourhood ; having under his direction a large vessel, ostensibly neutral, but in reality English.—Mr. Parsons made an excursion from the confined air of Surat into the neighbouring country, and gives some account of the more remarkable of the rural sports of the natives, with which we shall close our extracts from his work :

‘ They have a peculiar method of hunting antelopes in different parts of the kingdom of Guzarat with leopards, which are trained up for the purpose. The hunters are on horseback ; the leopard, hoodwinked, is put into a covered hunting cart, which is drawn by oxen ; the keeper is likewise in the cart unseen, with the reins leading through lattice doors ; they go on slowly, the huntsman keeping at a good distance behind.

‘ As antelopes are plenty in this country it is not long before they see some ; they are generally discovered in pairs and sometimes in herds. As soon as the person in the cart discovers them, he puts out a small red flag on the hinder part of the cart, as a signal to the huntsman, and keeps advancing ; the antelopes, not being afraid of the oxen or the cart, pursue their grazing ; when the cart comes near, it stops ; the man taking off the leopard’s blind shews him the antelopes, which he is always eager to pursue ; he is accordingly let loose, and springs out of the cart amongst them ; the flag is then

then taken in, on which the huntsman comes galloping up, and the cart goes on a brisk pace. The leopard always singles out one, nor will he turn to the right or left to seize another should they fall in his way.

The antelope at first runs much faster than the leopard; but being frightened, he frequently springs up, always falling on his feet; these efforts oblige him to slacken his pace, whereas the leopard pursues uniformly, till he overtakes his prey, when he tumbles him over, and seizing him by the throat, sucks out his blood until he is weary or satiated. The keeper always carries in the cart a joint of mutton, which is thrown to the leopard after he has sucked the blood, otherwise he would not let go his hold until he had satisfied his hunger: sometimes it happens that the keeper does not come up in time to prevent the antelope from being mangled. Some antelopes will run three-quarters of an hour, others not half the time, and it often happens that, through fright, he is sooner overtaken.

As soon as the leopard's hunger is satisfied, he is led tamely to the cart, into which he springs, and is as quiet as a lamb.

The English gentlemen who have hunted in this manner assure me, that it is inconceivable the glorious figure which the leopard makes, when on a full stretch in the field after his prey, with his fine tail straight out in a line, with which he seems to steer himself, and at such times they all agree that he seems twice as large as he does at others.

Mr. P. next gives ample descriptions of Bombay, and of the various harbours along the Malabar coast. He returned to Europe by way of the Red Sea and Egypt; which route naturally gives rise to full accounts of Mocha, Suez, and Cairo. We consider it, however, as altogether unnecessary to enter into any examination of this part of the volume: in composition, it is similar to the rest; and it relates to countries of which parts are familiar to the British public, while the remainder have been described by later travellers, particularly by one (Lord Valentia) of whose labours we shall very shortly render an account to our readers.

The publication of Mr. Parsons's MS. has made an addition to the stock of general knowledge in regard to the Eastern world: but it is much to be regretted that the author should have left his papers in so imperfect a state, and that the editor should have so little contributed to their improvement. We would not be understood to assert that we were intitled to expect that an Editor should supply those scientific explanations, which are evidently wanting to complete the description of several remarkable circumstances in the journey; nor that he should have laboured, by the introduction of general observations, to give a close connection and comprehensive character to the mass of particular details. The capacity for such improvements as these is to be expected only from a man of letters;



letters ; and the labour required for their application will seldom be sustained, unless for the benefit of the whole reputation that can be derived from them. We were justified, however, in looking for exertions of a different kind ; for the correction of obvious errors, the explanation of obscurities of language, the prevention of repetitions, and the condensation of prolixity. That much has been left undone, in these essential requisites, will be apparent on a very cursory inspection of the book. In one passage, (p. 266.) we are told that Cape Aden in Arabia, which is distant two thousand miles from any part of India, was ‘ discovered, bearing north-west, about *fifteen leagues* from Bombay.’ In treating of the pilgrims, p. 336, it is said, ‘ these people *load* at Alexandria,’ instead of *land* at Alexandria. The population of Surat is mentioned in page 251, and again in page 260 in such a manner as if it had not been mentioned before. Such errors as these form a great deduction from the value of a work, which would otherwise have been an instructive and entertaining performance. — A tinted view of Bagdad and another of Antioch are given.

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ART. XI. *A Letter on the Genius and Dispositions of the French Government*, including a View of the Taxation of the French Empire. By an American, recently returned from Europe. 8vo. pp. 253. 6s. Philadelphia, printed ; London, reprinted for Longman and Co. 1810.

WE have here the production of an American gentleman, whose name we understand to be *Walsh* ; and who, after having resided some time at Paris, and subsequently visited England, undertook, on his return home, to render to his countrymen a report of his political observations. At Paris, he appears to have been intimate with public characters, and to have had access to various sources of information in respect to national affairs ; the result of which he conceives it to be his duty to make known, with the view of correcting the misapprehensions of his American brethren.—French writers are so incapable, in their present shackled condition, of giving impartial information on government-matters, and the intercourse between France and England, by the travels of individuals, has been of late years so limited, that attention is justly due to the detail of a person who, after having collected his information on the spot, delivers it to the world through the medium of a free press. While, however, the man who publishes in France is often the medium of misrepresentation, because he must speak the sentiments of government, the man who publishes

publishes in England, or in America, is still subject to those sources and causes of misrepresentation which originate in himself. Accordingly, our objections to the present work relate to the personal feelings of the writer, who is by much too eager to censure indiscriminately the whole system of the French government; forgetting that continued vehemence is generally hurtful to the cause of the pleader; and that, by betraying exaggeration in certain cases, it creates a disposition to suspect that fault in all. We must add, also, that this tract is hastily written, and ill arranged. Yet the importance of its matter intitles it to an attentive analysis.

It may be divided into two parts,—on the general policy of the French government,—and on its financial policy. After having expressed his regret for the partiality of some of his countrymen towards that nation, the author proceeds to examine the facilities for the subjugation of other powers, with which France was furnished by the overthrow of her old institutions. She was released by it from all moral and political restraint. While the other states continued to revolve in their former orbits, France, he says, was loosened from the political firmament, and prepared to roll in a new track. She exhibited the appearance of a decomposed mass, retaining the invigorating elements of her old constitution, but acquiring, in addition, an energy of which that constitution was incapable. The states of Germany and of the North never duly appreciated the unprecedented character of the war in which they found themselves engaged. To form the new-combinations which it required would have been in opposition to all their hereditary prejudices; yet nothing short of a total revolution in their internal constitutions could have enabled them to meet France on equal terms. The career of conquest, which she has run since Bonaparte's accession, is owing still more to her previous energy than to his talents. "The swing and impulse" were already given. He has indeed adjusted the parts and strengthened the springs of this colossal engine with masterly skill, but he can scarcely be said to have outstripped its inherent velocity. What prospect of success had Spain in a contest with such an enemy?—Spain, an inert mass, a nerveless country; disorderly in her civil, and weak in her military constitution; submissive to the most enfeebling excesses of religious and political tyranny; possessing only 40,000 regular soldiers, and destitute of a system for the production of any other national force. The only element of resistance was a deeply rooted hatred of the French:—a principle of action which is powerful indeed in itself, but ineffectual, without other aids, against an overwhelming force. In consequence, the opposition excited to the French consisted in an efferves-

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cence, which was too often allowed to evaporate in empty menaces. Treachery and fear marked the conduct of the higher classes; and the Juntas were generally composed of inactive, illiterate, formalizing men, without ability to conceive or courage to execute any bold or comprehensive plan of operations.

After this lament over the inefficiency of Spain, the author examines the power of Russia. The means of that empire appear to him, as they do to us, to have been greatly over-rated. Her maritime resources are inconsiderable; she possesses no fisheries, no colonies, nor length of coast. The vast extent of her territory has dazzled the eyes of mankind, but is in reality a source of weakness. Russia has seldom carried on a lengthened struggle; her armies are raised slowly, and with great difficulty. Seditions among the soldiery, and conspiracies in the court, also form great deductions from her political power. In regard to the scattered position of her population, it is important to remark that 1000 inhabitants collected within a square league will, when compared with 500 who are diffused over the same surface, sustain much more than double the amount of taxes. A similar reasoning holds still more in regard to recruiting her armies. The representations of Lord Hutchinson and other British officers tend to prove that the Russians were at no time in a condition to withstand the French. They were extremely deficient in good officers, particularly in the commissariat department; so that, although the intrepidity of their soldiery obtained, at intervals, extraordinary success, the machine was too defective to go on for more than one or two campaigns. Russia yet stands, but she stands alone, and without the power to breathe a vivifying and elastic spirit into the disjointed mass of continental states.

Another point, in which we agree with this writer, is in regard to the inutility of civil commotions in France; which, we apprehend, would have no permanent effect on the destinies of the continent, even if accompanied by the death of Bonaparte. The struggle could not last long, and would, in all probability, terminate in the establishment of a military chief with the same power and the same views as the present. The fate of Spain might be averted for a season, but she would soon relapse into a state of vassalage to France. A country is never more formidable to her neighbours than after having emerged from a civil war.

From these topics of general policy, the author passes to an examination of the national finances. He says that the French have adopted from us every tax that could be rendered productive, without equal attention to an alleviation of the pressure

pressure on the lower classes. They observe the usual distinction of direct and indirect taxes ; comprizing under the former the imposts on land, on moveables, on doors and windows, and on the exercise of professions, intituled *le droit des patentes*. Among the indirect taxes, they include, as we do, stamps, customs, excise, and miscellaneous duties. The duty on professions is either fixed by a *tarif*, or levied at the rate of ten per cent. on the rent of the premises occupied. It is computed that nearly 1,800,000 individuals, throughout the French empire, are subject to this tax, which is both impolitic in its tendency and inequitable in the mode of assessment. Landed property was formerly worth above twenty years' purchase, but at present it is not worth more than twelve or fifteen. The tax on registration is levied on all public and private deeds in writing, on judicial and notarial acts, and generally on transfers of property. In 1803, the finance minister computed the total amount of property in France at above twelve hundred millions sterling, the changes in which by death might be calculated to affect one-thirtieth part annually ; so that, at the medium rate of one per cent. on inheritances, government ought to receive yearly, from this source, above four hundred thousand pounds sterling.

France has in its public forests a source of revenue which is almost unknown in this country. Under the old government, these forests covered three millions of acres, and yielded a produce of half a million sterling : but since the Revolution, the annexation of emigrant and other property has increased their extent to five millions of acres, and their revenue to nearly three millions sterling. Above eight thousand persons are employed in taking charge of these forests ; and by the restrictions imposed on the owners of private woods, government have, in a manner, a monopoly of timber. It is computed that, in the course of the Revolution, the sale of emigrant-land produced a hundred millions sterling, and the sale of moveables, ten millions. A tax is payable on a licence to fish as well as to shoot. Lottery offices are spread throughout all the cities of the empire, and the drawings of lotteries are very frequent ; at Paris, twice in a week. The clear profit from this source is half a million sterling ; a revenue which is dearly bought by the sacrifice of morals. The author commends the regularity and dispatch in the management of the post in France, and reckons the clear income at three hundred thousand pounds ; a sum which is small for the extent of the empire, and which would be much greater were it not for the expence of extra-offices at the armies when in the field. The supply of post-horses for travellers is under the direction of this department of government, and the discipline is excellent.

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A new coinage, to the extent of fifteen millions sterling, took place three years ago, and yielded a seignorage of sixteen thousand pounds; a sum which we specify, notwithstanding its insignificance, because it arises from a source of which it has been judged unwise to make use in this country. Articles of jewellery are likewise taxed and stamped in France.—The amount of coin, though somewhat lessened since the days of M. Necker, is still great, being above seventy millions sterling. *They have no paper-money*: which Bonaparte affects to make a matter of exultation, by proclaiming the superior stability of coin: but the real explanation of the matter is that, in the unsettled state of France, sufficient confidence does not exist either in government or in individuals, to procure currency for paper.—The collection of turnpike-dues was lately abolished; and a tax on salt, payable at the salt-pans, was imposed in its stead. The well-known *gabelle* was a salt-tax on retail; and though the present impost is not so offensive in appearance, it is equally burdensome in reality. To lessen unpopularity, it was declared to be destined for the repair of the roads. The Revolution had been productive of great injury to the roads and canals; and the care of Bonaparte's government has been anxiously directed to the improvement of the great military highways. An admirable entrance, for example, into Italy, has been constructed over Mount Simphon. The embellishments of the capital, however, have formed a still greater cause of public expence;—embellishments originating not in the taste but in the policy of the sovereign, who well knows the frivolous vanity of the Parisians, and the effect produced over the country at large by every thing which appears to give additional lustre to the metropolis.

By the term 'united duties,' in the French budget, is meant excise-duties, and their amount is nearly three millions sterling. Tobacco is a productive article to the French exchequer as well as to ours; it yields, along with snuff, not less than 800,000l. sterling. Wines and spirituous liquors are subject to considerable burdens. When government cannot readily devise a new tax, they adopt the expedient to which we have seen our own financiers reduced of late years, that of adding a per centage on the old rates: but the most exceptionable of the taxes are those which, under the title of *octrois de bienfaisance*, are levied on the provisions that are brought to market; the produce of them is applied to local purposes, such as the improvement of prisons, &c. The French finances were formerly under the direction of a single minister, called Comptroller-general: but now two officers are charged with this important department; one called the Treasury-minister, the other the Finance-

Finance-minister. The former is more immediately an agent for receipts and disbursements, while the latter is occupied with the financial resources of the empire. Each delivers annually a separate budget, which is *professedly* subject to revision by the senate. The tax-gatherers are not paid by fixed salaries, but by a per centage on their collections; which per centage is higher in France than in England. Under Necker, the various rates of the collection were computed to amount in all to eleven per cent. on the revenue, but at present the proportion must be higher. It was an old practice in France for the tax-officers, high and low, to advance a sum to government as a security for the faithful discharge of their trust: but the new government has improved on this plan; and a great variety of professions, such as bankers, lawyers, brokers, &c. are now compelled to deposit securities in cash, on entering on the exercise of business. These advances bear interest, indeed, but at a much lower rate than the current interest of the country. They are therefore nothing else than forced loans, operating as a tie on the loyalty of the contributors; who are well satisfied that both principal and interest would vanish on the dissolution of the present system.

The French have a *Caisse d'amortissement*, somewhat on the plan of our sinking-fund: but it has been diverted, year after year, from its proper purpose, for the supply of the immediate wants of government. Such has been the pressure for money, that a regular payment for a contract is seldom to be expected, unless it be necessary for the completion of that contract. Bills drawn by officers abroad, on the heads of their respective departments, often lie unsettled for years; similar irregularities arise in regard to engagements at home; and when payments at last take place, they are often made in government-paper, at a heavy discount. The loss, however, falls eventually on government itself; because no merchant either at home or abroad will enter into transactions with it, without indemnifying himself by an additional charge in proportion to the expected delay.—The whole clear revenue of France is about forty-five millions sterling. This is twice its amount before the Revolution: but, on the other hand, it is to be considered that the conquests have produced an additional number of contributors. Large as were the civil-list expences of the Bourbons, it is generally thought that those of the present family are much greater.

Notwithstanding the abolition of feudal tenures, Agriculture in France remains in a very backward state. The great proprietors reside in towns, and are wholly inattentive to farming pursuits. Much of the field-labour is performed by women, war having thinned the numbers of the young men, and corrupted the

the morals of that proportion of them who have survived to return. Manufactures have been, from similar causes, in a very depressed state; and Lyons, which is supposed to have suffered less than other towns, does not now employ half of the fourteen thousand looms which, twenty years ago, were at work within its walls.

In regard to the disposition of Bonaparte towards the Americans, the writer takes some pains to shew to his countrymen that Napoleon feels a rooted hatred or rather contempt for them; and that Talleyrand, on whom many Americans are disposed to place dependence, is neither a zealous advocate for them, nor any longer in high favour with the Emperor. The disapprobation expressed by that minister, at the usurpation of the Spanish crown, is considered to be the immediate cause of this coldness: but Bonaparte was at all times accustomed to govern in the cabinet as much as in the camp, and to delegate only subordinate functions to his ministers.

The sketch which we have now given of the condition of France is made up of those circumstances in her situation, respecting which we in general agree with the writer of this pamphlet. Were we to notice the points in which we differ, the list would indeed be greatly lengthened. His writings bespeak the man of education, but his conclusions do not indicate the reflecting politician. He is rich in sparkling effusions, but poor in solid argument. He has read Dr. Smith, and can quote him aptly; yet he is so little master of that author's doctrines, as to dwell (p. 124.) on the exploded notion of a balance of trade. Among other points in which we dissent from him, is his idea that Bonaparte finds it necessary, or considers it as politic, to continue at war. We, on the other hand, believe that he is persuaded that peace would greatly increase his popularity, and that he therefore desires it. — The writer represents Napoleon as the sworn enemy of commerce, both in his own dominions and elsewhere. We imagine that Bonaparte knows very little of the principles of commerce; and we believe that commerce, like other things, may at times have been the object of his hasty and presumptuous invective: but, so far from disliking it, we apprehend that he is not a little desirous of promoting it. His memorable expression, "I want ships, colonies, and commerce," escaped him at a moment when he was likely to speak his genuine sentiments. — These are samples of the many assertions which are advanced by this writer without due consideration. His expressions, too, are often of the same intemperate character; for example, he calls the French army 'the ruffian horde now preying on the carcase of Europe.' We feel grateful for his favourable opinion of England, and

wish that sentiments equally liberal were more general among his countrymen : but we cannot help remarking, when he talks with so much indifference about our taxes and our stamp duties, that it is not very likely that he ever kept house or carried on a law-suit in this country. Had he been among the auditors of a recent parliamentary debate, he would have heard our taxes very differently treated in the corresponding statements of two gentlemen who were intimate friends of Mr. Pitt, and were placed at the fountain-head of financial information.

The subsequent passage contains an affecting picture of the evils of lotteries and public gambling :

‘ The numerous gambling tables of the capital—all of which are licensed, and some farmed out by the government—concur in inflaming the thirst of irregular gain ;—in vitiating the morals and deranging the habits of private life.—I know not that any spectacle, among the varieties of vice and misery, which I had occasion to contemplate in Europe, struck me with more horror than the gambling orgies of the *Palais Royal*, where apartments of immense extent are at all hours of the night filled with persons of both sexes, indiscriminately engaged in games of the merest hazard,—and exhibiting, by their gestures and physiognomy, all the keen anguish and the tumultuous agitation which the extremes of despair and elation can produce. Mixed with designing sharpers,—with spies of the police,—with famished mendicants and intemperate prostitutes, they form altogether a group which might have served as a model to the pictures of Dante’s *Inferno*, and than which nothing more disgusting is to be found in the delineations of the pencil or in the fictions of poetic fancy.’

Imagination seems to predominate over reason in the writer’s delineation of the national vanity of the French :

‘ The idea of unlimited sway is studiously kept before the public mind,—and the future Empire of France over the nations of the earth, exultingly proclaimed, in all the songs of the theatres and in public discourses of every description. Even the gaunt and ragged beings, who prowl about the streets and infest the night-cellars of Paris ;—the famished outcasts,—many of whom are men of decent exterior and advanced age, beggared by the revolution,—who haunt the *Bouvelards* and public gardens, in order to enjoy, under the rays of the sun, that enlivening warmth which their poverty denies them at home,—and who, by their wan and melancholy aspect, excite the horror and compassion of a stranger—all appear to forget, for a moment, their own miseries, in anticipating the brilliant destinies of the Empire, and contemplating Paris, in prospective, as the metropolis of the world. The inhabitants of the country and of the provincial cities,—whose condition the war renders miserable beyond description, and who secretly invoke the bitterest curses on their rulers,—are, nevertheless, (for such is the character of this extraordinary people) not without their share in the general avidity for power ;  
and,



and, when the sense of their wretchedness does not press too strongly upon them, can even consent to view the extension of the national influence and renown in the light of a personal benefit.'

We give the following as one of those anecdotes which this author is too ready to admit without qualification :

' During the peace of 1802, an attempt was made to enlist the principal Gazettes of England in the cause of the French rulers. A person of the name of Fiévée, who has since officiated as Editor of the *Journal de l'Empire*, was deputed to that country on what he himself boastingly styled an *voyage de corruption*. He returned, however, without having succeeded in his mission, and vented his own spleen as well as that of his government, in a libellous book on the British nation.'

It will be considered as probable that Bonaparte would have gladly bribed, or even poisoned, the editors of the French newspapers published in London : but that he cared little about what our *English* papers said of him, we know on the authority of his own declaration to Lord Whitworth ; — a declaration which was made at a moment when he was not disposed to soften the picture of his grievances.

The long continuance of our war with France, and the unbridled character of her ruler, have created, among many of us, a disposition to listen with avidity to invectives against him and his government ; and such ebullitions, naturally producing in us a partiality towards the author of them, make us regard him as a zealous and able advocate of our interests. It is probable, therefore, that the present pamphlet may find a great number of readers in this country. On our part, we are disposed to ascribe to the writer a purity of intention and manly ardour of character ; and we should expect him to compose a good book on a subject on which his passions did not hurry him away : but the work before us is a superficial and erroneous production. Its only value, which certainly is not inconsiderable, consists in a knowledge of local circumstances, acquired by personal residence in the French metropolis ; and these, as far as we believed them to be accurately stated, we have compressed, and laid before our readers. When the author attempts to tread on different ground, when he compares France with other countries, or when, in regard to France herself, he ventures to reason from the present to the future, he discovers a degree of haste which is fatal to all rectitude of judgment ; and he first misleads himself and next his readers, giving them the picture of imagination as the result of deliberate thought. He thinks that war is safer for us than peace, and so do many other respectable and well meaning individuals : but those who have gone rather more deeply into the question think differently : they are convinced that our

strength is such as, with ordinary prudence, will accomplish our security in peace; and they believe that, of all countries, this land of industry would be the greatest gainer by that change, which would lay open the world to the career of commercial exertion.

ART. XII. *Observations on the Criminal Law of England, as it relates to Capital Punishments, and on the Mode in which it is Administered.* By Sir Samuel Romilly. 8vo. pp. 76. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1810.

A RESOLUTE spirit and dauntless courage must be possessed by him who, in these times, travels out of the beaten track in order to rectify established errors, and to reform ancient abuses. No sooner does any man announce intentions of this sort, than he finds himself beset on every side by a clamorous tribe; who decry his motives, who obstruct in every possible way his efforts, and who see or affect to see in every improvement a dangerous innovation. Such considerations, however, have not deterred the distinguished author of this tract, from devoting some of the moments of his scanty leisure to that toilsome and thankless service.

Unwelcome as all measures of this nature are to many persons, the professional eminence, the political integrity, the superior talents, and the private virtues of the proposer of them in this instance, as well as the ability with which they are recommended, cannot fail to attract to them a very considerable degree of attention; and we trust that we are not too sanguine in hoping that they will experience only slight opposition, and will be adopted by the legislature. The following passage will acquaint the reader with their nature and extent:

‘The observations now submitted to the public contain the substance of a Speech delivered in the House of Commons on the 9th Feb. 1810, on moving for leave to bring in bills to repeal the Acts of 10 and 11 Will. III. 12 Anne, and 24 Geo. II., which make the crimes of stealing privately in a shop, goods of the value of five shillings; or in a dwelling-house, or on board a vessel in a navigable river, property of the value of forty shillings, capital felonies.’

The statements with which this tract commences are eminently deserving of the reader's attention; and the public are under no slight obligations to the author for the precision which his researches have enabled him to impart to them. It may be true that the facts which are here detailed were in a loose manner generally known: but, wanting the distinctness which is now given to them, the inferences deducible from them escaped

escaped observation ; while, presented as they are here, they carry us at once to the conclusions which it is the object of the author to establish, and prepare us for the just reasoning by which they are supported.

We give these statements in Sir Samuel's own words ;

' There is probably no other country in the world in which so many and so great a variety of human actions are punishable with loss of life as in England. These sanguinary statutes, however, are not carried into execution. For some time past the sentence of death has not been executed on more than a sixth part of all the persons on whom it has been pronounced, even taking into the calculation crimes the most atrocious and the most dangerous to society, murders, rapes, burning of houses, coining, forgeries, and attempts to commit murder. If we exclude these from our consideration, we shall find that the proportion which the number executed bears to those convicted is, perhaps, as one to twenty ; and if we proceed still further, and, laying out of the account burglaries, highway robberies, horse-stealing, sheep-stealing, and returning from transportation, confine our observations to those larcenies, unaccompanied with any circumstance of aggravation, for which a capital punishment is appointed by law, such as stealing privately in shops, and stealing in dwelling-houses and on board ships, property of the value mentioned in the statutes, we shall find the proportion of those executed reduced very far indeed below that even of one to twenty.'

From certain tables (of which an account is subjoined) of the convicts at the Old Bailey, and of the executions from 1749 to 1772, it appears that,

' In the seven years which elapsed, from 1749 to 1756 inclusive, there were convicted 428, executed 306 ; rather less than three-fourths. From 1756 to 1764, of 246 convicted, 139 were executed ; being much more than half. From 1764 to 1772, 457 were convicted, and of these 233 were executed ; a little more than half. From this period to 1802 there has not been published any accurate statement on this subject. But from 1802 to 1808 inclusive, there have been printed, under the direction of the Secretary of State for the Home Department, regular tables of the number of persons convicted capitally ; and of those on whom the law has been executed ; and from these we find, that in London and Middlesex, there were convicted 528, and executed 67, being rather more than one eighth of the whole.'

' There is (observes Sir Samuel) no instance in which this alteration in the mode of administering the law has been more remarkable, than in those of privately stealing in a shop or stable, goods of the value of five shillings, which is made punishable with death by the statute of 10 and 11 William III., and of stealing in a dwelling-house property of the value of forty shillings, for which the same punishment is appointed by the statute of 12 Anne, and which statutes it is now proposed to repeal. The exact numbers cannot, from any thing that has hitherto been published, be correctly as-

certained ; but from Sir Stephen Janssen's tables it appears, that after laying out of the calculation the numbers convicted of murder, burglary, highway robbery, forgery, coining, returning from transportation, and fraudulent bankruptcies, there remain convicted at the Old Bailey of shop-lifting and other offences of the same nature, in the period from 1749 to 1771, 240 persons, and of those no less than 109 were executed.

'What has been the number of persons convicted of those offences within the last seven years does not appear ; but from the tables published under the authority of the Secretary of State, we find that within that period there were committed to Newgate for trial, charged with the crime of stealing in dwelling-houses, 599 men and 414 women ; and charged with the crime of shop-lifting, 506 men and 353 women ; in all 1,872 persons, and of these only one was executed.'

This almost universal disregard of laws under which offenders are tried and convicted, in the assignment of the punishment, is a singular anomaly in our administration of justice ; and we apprehend that it is without precedent in all past times, and in all other countries. Having distinctly presented it to our notice, the author examines and completely refutes the notion which ascribes it to design and sets it up as a system.

Alluding to this relaxation, in carrying into execution the penal part of these laws, Sir Samuel observes ;

'This mode of administering justice is supposed by some persons to be a regular, matured, and well-digested system. They imagine, that the state of things which we see existing, is exactly that which was originally intended ; that laws have been enacted which were never meant to be regularly enforced, but were to stand as objects of terror in our statute-book, and to be called into action only occasionally, and under extraordinary circumstances, at the discretion of the judges.'

He adds, however,

'Whether the practice which now prevails be right or wrong, whether beneficial or injurious to the community, it is certain that it is the effect not of design, but of that change which has slowly taken place in the manners and character of the nation, which are now so repugnant to the spirit of these laws, that it has become impossible to carry them into execution.'

Sir S. Romilly clearly proves that all our laws, even those which are most sanguinary, were intended to be strictly enforced by the legislatures which enacted them, and were actually so enforced for a series of years after they were passed.

'Even, (he says,) the Act of Queen Elizabeth, which made it a capital offence for any person above the age of fourteen to be found associating

associating for a month with persons calling themselves Egyptians, the most barbarous statute perhaps that ever disgraced our criminal code, was executed down to the reign of King Charles the First, and Lord Hale mentions thirteen persons having in his time been executed upon it at one assizes. It is only in modern times that this relaxation of the law has taken place, and only in the course of the present reign that it has taken place to a considerable degree.'—

'It appears, that even at the commencement of the present reign, the number of convicts executed exceeded the number of those who were pardoned; but that at the present time, the number pardoned exceeds nearly in the proportion of 8 to 1 the number of those who are executed.'

By reasoning, and by facts, the author proves the truth of his former remark, and shews that the present method of administering the laws in this country 'is not a system maturely formed and regularly established, but is a practice which has gradually prevailed as the laws have become less adapted to the state of society in which we live.'

Of the remaining part of this pamphlet, which contains Sir S. Romilly's objections to this system, and his refutation of the vindication of it by Dr. Paley, an adequate idea can be formed only from a perusal of the tract. It is from its structure and effect as a whole, and from its skilful adaptation for its purpose, that its merit is principally derived. It is throughout severely chaste, without glare, without refinement, without alloy. All is precious metal. The style, indeed, exhibits *some* and the arrangement *more* marks of haste: but, under these disadvantages, the argumentation is worthy of the known powers of the author.

Unpretending as the tract is in every respect, its effect on the mind is not inferior to that which would have been produced by the boasted arts and address of oratory. Most persons have been in the habit of considering our present system, if not as imposing in appearance, as at least innocent and not inconvenient in practice: but let them sit down to the perusal of these pages, and few of them will rise without their sentiments having undergone a complete revolution. The scene which before did not offend will appear replete with confusion, and with all the varieties of deformity and disorder; and that which had been deemed harmless will be perceived to have been the source of numberless mischiefs, of cruel injustice to individuals, and of serious injuries to society.

With regard to the author's animadversions on Dr. Paley's vindication of our criminal law, we must confess that in our opinion no refutation was ever more decisive, or triumph more complete; while the high and just reputation of the valued and regretted vanquished champion renders the victory

more signal, and cannot fail to make it memorable. If the long acquiescence of the public in Dr. Paley's defence shews what charm belongs to specious phrases and smooth sentences, its recent fate as clearly proves how little these avail when they are fairly brought to the test of just argumentation.

When a person of known taste, and a master in the arts of reasoning and persuasion, commits his thoughts to the press, be his object and the circumstances in which he acts what they may, the curious will explore his pages in search of those unheeded excellences, which a mind fraught with the choicest stores of literature will spontaneously throw out. Such curiosity will not in the present instance pass ungratified, since the pages before us discover traces which indicate a large range of thought, and afford specimens of singular ingenuity. How different from ordinary writing is the following passage!

Although the severe laws of William and of Anne are not now executed, and may be said, therefore, to exist only in theory, they are attended with many most serious practical consequences. Amongst these, it is not the least important, that they form a kind of standard of cruelty, to justify every harsh and excessive exercise of authority. Upon all such occasions these unexecuted laws are appealed to as if they were in daily execution. Complain of the very severe punishments which prevail in the army and the navy, and you are told that the offences, which are so chastised, would by the municipal law be punished with death. When not long since a governor of one of the West India islands was accused of having ordered that a young woman should be tortured, his counsel said in his defence, that the woman had been guilty of a theft, and that by the laws of this country her life would have been forfeited. When, in the framing new laws, it is proposed to appoint for a very slight transgression a very severe punishment, the argument always urged in support of it is, that actions, not much more criminal, are by the already existing law punished with death. So in the exercise of that large discretion which is left to the judges, the state of the law affords a justification for severities, which could not otherwise be justified. When for an offence, which is very low in the scale of moral turpitude, the punishment of transportation for life is inflicted, a man who only compared the crime with the punishment, would be struck with its extraordinary severity; but he finds, upon inquiry, that all that mass of human suffering which is comprised in the sentence, passes by the names of tenderness and mercy, because death is affixed to the crime by a law scarcely ever executed, and, as some persons imagine, never intended to be executed.

In enumerating the inconveniences arising from the discretion which the Judges are at present obliged to exercise, equally consummate and just is the encomium which the author passes on that venerable body :

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‘No man can have frequently attended our criminal courts, and have been an attentive observer of what was passing there, without having been deeply impressed with the great anxiety which the judges feel to discharge most faithfully their important duties to the public. Their perfect impartiality, their earnest desire in every case to prevent a failure of justice, to punish guilt, and to protect innocence, and the total absence with them of all distinctions between the rich and the poor, the powerful and the unprotected, are matters upon which all men are agreed. In these particulars the judges are all actuated by one spirit, and the practice of all of them is uniform. But in seeking to attain the same object, they frequently do, and of necessity must, from the variety of opinions which must be found in different men, pursue very different courses. The same benevolence and humanity, understood in a more confined or a more enlarged sense, will determine one judge to pardon and another to punish. It has often happened, it necessarily must have happened, that the very same circumstance which is considered by one judge as matter of extenuation, is deemed by another a high aggravation of the crime. The former good character of the delinquent, his having come into a country in which he was a stranger to commit the offence, the frequency or the novelty of the crime, are all circumstances which have been upon some occasions considered by different judges in those opposite lights; and it is not merely the particular circumstances attending the crime, it is the crime itself, which different judges sometimes consider in quite different points of view.’

Agreeing as we do with Dr. Adam Smith, that this country owes its prosperity to its pure administration of justice, more than to any other single cause, we congratulate the public on the present attempt to render equally pure our system of jurisprudence; and most earnestly do we wish that its success may correspond with the zeal, ability, and judgment with which it has been prosecuted. We regret that the late period of the month, in which this tract has reached us, unavoidably deprives us of the gratification which we should have felt in more nicely appreciating its literary claims; and in discussing that oratorical excellence, too rare at all times but particularly in these days, which rejects adventitious trappings, and which it seems difficult to appreciate otherwise than by its effects. Had some of our first writers possessed this turn, we think that their works would have lost none of the interest which they have commanded.

Leave was given by the House of Commons to Sir S. Romilly, to bring in the Bills by which he proposed to effect the objects in view.

ART. XIII. *A Letter from the Right Honourable Lord Viscount Melville to the Earl of Aberdeen ; relative to the Management of the Civil Service of the Navy.* 4to. pp. 50. 2s. 6d. Winchester and Son. 1810.

SINCE Lord Melville's appointment to the Admiralty in 1804, the affairs of the navy seem to have occupied a large share of his attention. We have observed that he has frequently introduced them into discussion in the House of Lords ; and in the publication before us, which shews that they have seriously engaged his hours of retirement, his object is to direct the attention of that House to the labours of the Board of Naval Revision. The public have a very distinct recollection of the Board of Naval Inquiry, appointed at the recommendation of Lord St. Vincent, and noted for the keenness of their strictures : but their successors, the Board of Naval Revision, are not so generally known. The latter was instituted by Mr. Pitt and Lord Melville early in 1805, for the purpose of introducing a systematic arrangement into the civil affairs of the navy, and consisted of Lord Barham (then Sir Charles Middleton), the late Mr. Fordyce, Sir Roger Curtis, Admiral Domett, and Captain Serle of the Transport Board. These gentlemen continued their labours with great assiduity, and produced not fewer than fifteen reports ; thirteen of which related to subjects connected respectively with the Navy, the Transport, and the Victualling Boards : the fourteenth regarded the means of facilitating the supply of timber for the navy ; and the fifteenth explained the advantages of establishing a new naval arsenal at Northfleet\*, and of applying the aid of mechanism to dock-labour.

On all these subjects, Lord Melville conceives, the Reports of the Commissioners were intitled to great attention. It remained with the Admiralty to follow up their recommendations ; and, thinking that unnecessary delay has arisen, Lord M. determined to quicken the proceedings of that Board, by bringing the matter before Parliament. His letter to Lord Aberdeen (which is dated on the 29th of January last,) contains a request that this nobleman would give notice that, as soon as Lord Melville should recover from an indisposition under which he was then labouring, he intended to call the attention of the House of Lords to the subject ; and it seems now to have been published for the purpose of conveying to their Lordships, in print, a variety of details which are of too complicated a nature to be trusted to their recollection of a speech. Into these details, it would be foreign to our purpose

\* On this proposition, Lord M. has just published a letter to Mr. Perceval, which has excited a rapid reply from Mr. George Rose.



to enter; and we shall confine our quotations to those parts which have connection with the general affairs of the country.

Lord M. begins with an account of the first appointment of the Board of Revision:

‘ I return you many thanks for your attention to my wishes, respecting the Reports on the management of the Civil Service of the Navy. You judge truly in supposing, that I am deeply interested in that business. The Institution of the Commission of Naval Revision was the last measure of my political life. The following is a short history of the origin and progress of it. When I came to the head of the Board of Admiralty, in the month of May 1804, the apprehensions which then prevailed in the public mind, that the Flotilla, collected at Boulogne, was not watched by an adequate force of Small Craft, in the narrow seas, claimed my earliest attention. The inadequacy of the British fleet, effectually to resist the united force of our then existing enemies, joined to the prospect of a further encrease of hostile force, by a probable rupture with the court of Spain, was, in my estimation, equally, if not more pressing, than our home defence. I therefore took the most effectual measures I could devise, for materially augmenting our ships of the line, with the least possible delay. I did not, at that time find the relative situations of the Admiralty and Navy Boards, such as I thought well calculated to promote the public service. I had no difficulty in speedily putting an end to any disagreeable circumstances of that nature, and I shall never cease to recollect, with heartfelt satisfaction, the cordial aid and co-operation I received from all classes of persons belonging to the civil department of the navy. And, in addition to their official aid, I had recourse, on every requisite occasion, to the naval knowledge and experience of my old and valued friend Lord Barham, then Sir Charles Middleton. But, with all these aids, I early perceived, or thought I perceived, that there was a want of system in the rules and practice, by which the management of the civil concerns of the navy was conducted. It could not well be otherwise; for it did not appear that, from the end of the former century, when the Duke of York was Lord High Admiral, there ever had been any systematic revision or regulation of the mode in which the civil service of our navy was conducted. I was confirmed in the impression I had received upon this subject, by a perusal of the Reports of the Commissioners of Naval Enquiry.’— ‘ This statement suggested new topics for consideration, and speedily led to a decision, in my mind, that, if efficient men could be found for the execution of the business, nothing was so likely to answer the object I had in view, as a Commission, with full powers to examine and enquire into the whole system existing for the administration of the civil affairs of the navy, who should report the result of their enquiries, accompanied with such suggestions as might lay the foundation of a complete and permanent system of management. I, (as it was customary with me on every important occasion,) submitted my sentiments to Mr. Pitt, whose comprehensive understanding quickly embraced the whole of the subject. He concurred with me in thinking that, under the pressure of business which occupied the hourly attention of the

Admiralty and Navy Boards, it was impossible, that, either jointly, or separately, they could execute so laborious a task, and that, if the reports, when prepared, were made to the King in Council, they would be put into such a shape as would give to that system, which, upon mature deliberation, and after sufficient trial in practice, should be adopted, such a permanent form as would secure it from the risk of fluctuation, and prevent the rules and regulations, which should be prescribed, from being departed from by any authority less than that of the King in Council, by which they were established. Upon this plan we speedily agreed, and it was impossible there could be a difference of opinion upon one other point, viz. that if Sir Charles Middleton could be persuaded, at his advanced period of life, to leave his retirement, and take the superintending charge of the business, it would give the very best chance for the success of the measure. I lost no time in applying to him, and, with many expressions of anxiety for the welfare of the navy, and of partial attachment to Mr. Pitt and myself, he was induced to acquiesce in my proposition; stating, as an essential requisite, that he should be furnished with the aid of Mr. Fordyce's assistance, who had been his colleague in former laborious investigations connected with the navy, and in whose talents and industry he reposed the most unreserved confidence. Of course I could have no difficulty in giving him immediate satisfaction upon this point, adding the further assurance of my thorough belief, that, if he undertook to preside in the business of the Commission, the whole of his colleagues would be left to his own selection.—

‘ During the short time I remained at the Board of Admiralty, after the appointment of the Commissioners, I was, from day to day, minutely informed, either by Sir Charles Middleton, or Mr. Fordyce, of the plan and progress of their proceedings; and, even after I ceased to have any official connection with them, the same friends, knowing the natural anxiety I entertained upon the subject, kept me, from time to time, informed of the whole progress of their enquiries, and the information I thus received, afforded complete occupation to many of my leisure hours during the years I have been living in retirement.’

His Lordship's reasons for bringing the subject at present before parliament are thus explained :

‘ I am bound in candour to state that the proceedings, hitherto held, either at the Council Board, or the Board of Admiralty, are not, in my judgment, calculated to insure the benefits which the original authors of the measure had in contemplation, when the commission was appointed.

‘ The returns made by the Council and Admiralty Boards impress me with a most earnest and anxious desire to endeavour to rouse the attention of the government, and of the country, to the importance of following up the suggestions of the Commissioners of Naval Revision with vigour, perseverance, and effect.—I have employed, when my health would permit, much of my thoughts since the close of last session of Parliament, in attending to the contents of those Reports, and, no doubt, my consideration of the subject was much facilitated by

by the previous and progressive knowledge I had acquired respecting the proceedings of the Commission, in the manner I have already stated. My chief object in wishing to be here at so early a period of the Session, was, in order to attend to this subject, and to the reports of another Commission, respecting the Administration of Justice in Scotland. Upon this last subject, from the candid, dispassionate, and disinterested investigation which has taken place concerning it, I have ceased to entertain any serious apprehensions. But, with regard to the Reports of the Commission of Naval Revision, many recent circumstances contribute to increase my anxiety, and if I can excite in the minds of others the same sentiments with which I myself am impressed, I have no doubt the business will work its own way, and the beneficial effects of the Commission may still be manifested, in promoting and securing the naval interests of the country.'

Of the measures of general policy recommended by Lord Melville, and particularly his foreign expeditions, it has not fallen to our lot to be very ardent admirers. We never considered him as possessed of the profound knowledge and the comprehensive views which are necessary to constitute a first-rate statesman; and indeed his life has passed too much in practical routine, to afford to his mind that expansion which can be acquired only by close and continued meditation: but constitutional hardihood seemed, unfortunately, to make him insensible of these defects, and prompted him to decide when it would often have been wiser to pause. While, however, we thus lament his deficiency in general knowledge, we bear testimony with pleasure to his habits of unwearied assiduity, and to his rapid progress in becoming master of the details of any department which he undertook. His application has always been characterized by great ardour and alacrity. His intimate acquaintance with India affairs is well known; and, recent as have been his investigations of the concerns of the navy, we apprehend, that his knowledge of them is greater than that of several of our public men who have professed to make them an object of attention through life. We have reason to think that the civil administration of the navy is very imperfectly conducted, and that our public dock-yards are in many respects behind those of private individuals. It is apparent, likewise, that a Board so much pressed by current business as the Admiralty cannot, in time of war, pay much attention to the necessary improvements. Yet the subject is of urgent consequence in the present state of Europe, in which our navy is the safeguard of our independence; and we not only applaud his Lordship's exertions in so interesting a cause, but cordially wish him success. His motion, however, in the House of Peers, (Feb. 9.) for bringing the matter before that assembly, was rejected;

jected; Lord Mulgrave having stated that the Admiralty had ordered the Reports "to be acted on."

Our account of a Speech by Lord Melville, on this subject, will be found in the *Political Class* of the *Catalogue* part of this Number.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For MARCH, 1810.

### MATHEMATICS.

Art. 14. *Mathematics simplified, and practically illustrated*, by the Adaptation of the principal Problems to the ordinary Purposes of Life, &c. together with a complete Essay on the Art of surveying Lands, &c. By Captain Thomas Williamson, Author of the *Wild Sports of India*. 8vo. pp. 224. 9s. Boards. Longman and Co.

It is undoubtedly very desirable to simplify that which is perplexed, and to render familiar that which is abstruse; and to the ingenuity which can attain such desirable objects, mathematics, beyond any branch or department of science, offers a wide field. That author, however, who can lead his reader through a series of plain and intelligible propositions, to the motions of the nodes of the planetary orbits, so that he perceives the cause and can compute the quantity of the effect, must be gifted with no ordinary talents and attainments. Yet should such an one arise, he would meet with but few readers. Let him simplify as much as he would, still there must be a certain distance between the first principle and the ultimate result; so that Indolence, if it could not assert that the way was rugged, would still avoid it as being tedious.

Moreover, in the practice and act of simplification, great caution must be used, in order that neither precision of expression nor exactness of notion should be violated. If, in hopes of being familiar, we talk the language of the multitude, we shall probably lay down both facts and principles inaccurately; and in this respect the author of the present treatise appears to us to have most grievously erred. He has stated many things with an inaccuracy that cannot be suited nor be useful to any capacity or talent; and he has abandoned the language of the learned, without any prospect of imparting their ideas by more ordinary terms. We give the following instances:

"Lines are defined, as "having length without breadth," and their terminations are points. Some authors, indeed, define a line as "a succession of contiguous points;" the fact is, that lines should be drawn with such acuteness, as, like a fine hair, to be barely perceptible; for a thick line will, like a large dot or puncture, seldom fail to produce error. Such workmen as are negligent in making measures exactly, and who are in the practice of making large slovenly marks, either with chalk, or rough tools, rarely give satisfaction, and occupy more time in rectifying their first fault, than the mechanic who is attentive at the outset does in completing his job.

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As an early habit of exactness is of the most importance, and as much will, on all occasions, depend on a close attention to the minuteness of points, and the delicacy of lines, too much stress cannot be laid on these particulars.\*

Again :

\* A cone is a solid which differs from a pyramid in having its base a circle, and in being, consequently, of a circular form all the way from the base to the point. Loaves of sugar may, generally speaking, be termed cones, though not properly conical. A true cone is created by the revolving, or *spinning of a triangle on its center*, supposing the point to serve as a pivot, and another point to be in the centre of the opposite side. Some authors admit that cones may have oval bases, and be oval to their summits ; but such cannot be deemed perfect, for it must be obvious that they never could come to a regular point. The only cone acknowledged in mathematics, is that generated by the motion of a triangle, supposing its apex, or upper point, to be one pivot, and another pivot to be in the center of its base.'

In page 17. he says, — ' A deviation from an *exact square, or right angle*, however trifling in the commencement,' &c.

Again. P. 31. ' The exact formation of the square carries with it more importance than appears to the superficial observer, for, not only will the beauty of the figure itself be destroyed, but all that depends thereon will suffer in proportion. The outward and inward resistance will be greatly impaired, since the want of a true perpendicular disposes to weakness, and in too many cases occasions serious consequences. When we enter a room whose angles are not correct, we feel an unpleasant sensation ; the furniture never seems to fit ; we cannot sit with comfort on an uneven chair, nor at a table whose legs are not perpendicular, and whose surface is not square with the legs. This unpleasant sensation increases into an apprehension of danger, when we perceive that the walls of a house are not truly perpendicular. Sloping floors are peculiarly inconvenient, and doors that stand on frames which have an inclination either one way or the other, not only are unsightly, but are constantly out of repair.'

Some of Captain W.'s departures from common modes of expressions are as remarkable as they are embarrassing. In p. 54. prob. 24. is ' to make on a given angle a parallelogram, equal to a given triangle.'

The author probably understands perfectly well the subjects on which he writes, but he expresses himself with so little precision that we dare not recommend his work to the young student.

#### PHILOSOPHY, ASTRONOMY, &c.

Art. 15. *Lectures on experimental Philosophy, Astronomy, and Chemistry* ; intended chiefly for the Use of Students and young Persons. By G. Gregory, D.D.\* &c. &c. 2 Vols. 12mo. 13s. Boards. R. Phillips.

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\* For Dr. Gregory's *Letters on Literature, &c.* see Art. V. of this Review.

These are two neat volumes of neat philosophy, and well adapted to the purpose set forth in the title-page. The execution of the work fully equals, and indeed exceeds, the pretensions of its author. He makes no promise of discovering any thing novel, nor any attempt at teaching what is profound: but the most important facts of experimental philosophy are very plainly and precisely stated, and its most interesting traits are faithfully delineated. The man of profound science may not be able to subsist entirely on the work, but the philosophical amateur may find in it many pleasant morsels.

The lectures are said to treat on Astronomy, Chemistry, and experimental Philosophy: but the latter division includes magnetism, hydrostatics, hydraulics, pneumatics, electricity, galvanism, optics, and mechanics; so that the reader, who peruses this treatise, will have made the whole circuit of the sciences. He may indeed be reproached with possessing a mere smattering of philosophy, but even that is better than entire ignorance; and, notwithstanding the offensiveness of the term, it is itself a positive good. This farther benefit is also to be expected, that the reader may become a student, and, having sipped, and found philosophy not unpleasant, may search elsewhere, and drink more deeply of its waters.

We think that the nature of the work does not require that we should give any extracts. They might indeed furnish no unfavourable specimen of the author's powers of statement and explanation, but they would communicate nothing novel. While, however, we do not make quotations, neither do we produce cavils and objections, for such have not occurred to us during a perusal which has been neither slight nor hasty: but we regret that the author has left his *Astronomical Tables*, relative to Juno, Ceres, &c. (Dr. Herschell's *Asteroids* in fact,) incomplete. He might without difficulty, or with the sole difficulty of inquiring, have obtained the elements of their orbits.

**Art. 16.** *The Elements of Astronomy*, according to the Newtonian Principles, illustrated by several new and interesting Diagrams, and adapted, as far as the Science will admit, to the plainest Capacities. Intended solely for the Instruction of young Ladies and Gentlemen. By George Reynolds. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Sherwood and Co. 1809.

We found ourselves disposed, on taking up this small tract, to quarrel with the very words of its title-page,—‘*The Elements of Astronomy, according to the Newtonian Principles;*’ because the elements of plane astronomy, which form the main subject of the book, have very little connection with principles that are peculiarly Newtonian. The epithet of *interesting*, also, as applied to Diagrams, sounded oddly. The only *interesting* diagram which we recollect to have seen was in an old edition of Fontenelle's *Plurality of Worlds*; where, in the top part, were the Sun, with Mercury, Venus, and the other planets and satellites, and in the lower part a gallant of ancient times, with bag, ruffles, and sword, and a fair lady.—When we advanced to the preface, this portion did not effect a conciliation between us and its author, since it is tainted somewhat with flippancy, and with

with an affectation of fine Johnsonian writing. The work itself, however, makes ample amends for these defects; and though we entered on its perusal with some prepossession against it, we find ourselves compelled to praise it. Though it is small, and intended to be elementary, many (and indeed most) of the explanations are given with great plainness and perspicuity. Some of them may serve as excellent models for our astronomical writers of higher flight, who write books that need commentaries; and we think that we shall be borne out in this judgment by the subjoined explanation of eclipses:

‘Any opaque body, exposed to the light of the Sun, will cast a shadow behind it; this shadow is a space deprived of light, into which, if another body enters, it cannot, for want of light, be seen, and the body, thus falling within the shadow, is said to be *eclipsed*. Hence, then, three bodies concur to form an Eclipse, viz. the luminous body, the opaque body causing the shadow, and the body involved in the shadow.

‘Eclipses are of two kinds, those of the Sun, and those of the Moon.—When the Moon is in conjunction with the Sun, the Sun is then eclipsed, but when she is in opposition, she herself is eclipsed.

‘First, we shall endeavour to account for eclipses of the Moon. The axis of the Earth’s shadow will always be in the plane of the Ecliptic, because, if a line were drawn from the center of the Sun to that of the Earth, it would be exactly co-incident with the plane of the Earth’s orbit.—Were the size of the Earth equal to that of the Sun, the shadow cast by the Earth would be cylindrical, and, by extending to infinity, it would occasionally eclipse the planets in their revolutionary progress. This, however, is a circumstance which has never yet happened. Were the Earth greater than the Sun, the shadow would be conical, with the apex beyond the Sun; and this shadow, by spreading wider into infinity, as it might be supposed to advance, would, for a still greater reason, eclipse the planets in their course: but this not being the case, the Earth is consequently not larger than the Sun.

‘Having proved that she is neither equal to the Sun, nor greater than he, she must of necessity be less than that luminary. Now, as this in reality is the case, the Earth’s shadow will be conical, with the base of it in herself; and hence also the axis of the shadow will always be in that point of the Ecliptic opposite to the point in which the Earth is. From all these premises it follows clearly, that there can be no eclipse of the Moon, but when the Earth is interposed between that body and the Sun.

‘As the Moon at a mean rate, goes round the Earth once in a month, or in 29 days, she ought to be eclipsed every time she is in opposition to the Sun, which is 13 times in the year. But though she is 13 times a year in opposition to the Sun, she is not, for the following reason, each of those times eclipsed; her orbit is inclined to that of the Earth more than five degrees, and under this circumstance she will, with respect to this Ecliptic, be sometimes too high, and sometimes too low, to be immersed at all within the shadow of the Earth. Besides, the Moon, in order to suffer an eclipse, either more or less, must be situated within less than 12 degrees of her

nodes. Within the limits of this space, (not quite equal to 12 degrees,) in proportion as she advances nearer to the point of intersection, she will be more deeply involved in darkness, until her center is exactly in the intersecting point. Being thus in opposition to the Sun, she will undergo a central eclipse, the greatest possible that she can have; in such a situation she will, for the space of three hours, be deprived of light.

It is not, however, always thus. The first paragraph of page 80 is most clumsily expressed.

The author, consulting, probably, books of no very recent date, has fallen on some antiquated methods: since, in one part, he talks of taking at sea the meridian altitude of the Sun by means of a quadrant furnished with a plumb-line; and, in another, he states that the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites furnish the best means of ascertaining the longitude. Navigators in the present day never attempt this method.

In page 118, we must hesitate to charge the substitution of *ecliptical* for elliptical on the author, because the blunder may be that of the compositor; and perhaps Mr. Reynold's will attempt to justify the propriety of the epithet when we censure the phrase [p. 73.] of 'Mars being the least *elegant* of the planets.' These little defects scarcely lower the favourable opinion of this astronomical tractate which we have already expressed.

#### MEDICINE, CHEMISTRY, &c.

Art. 17. *Remarks on the present State of the Lunatic Asylums in Ireland, and on the Number and Condition of Insane Paupers in that Kingdom; with an Appendix, containing a Number of original Letters, and other Papers connected with the Subject.* By And. Halliday, M. D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Murray.

The leading fact stated in this pamphlet is truly melancholy, and, when it is sufficiently known, must excite general interest; viz. 'that in the whole kingdom of Ireland, containing a population of nearly five millions and a half, and where, from existing circumstances, it is proved that insanity is a disease of as frequent occurrence among the lower classes of the people as in any other country in Europe, there is not even one asylum for the reception and cure of insane paupers.' It appears that Sir John Newport, aware of the evil, brought a bill into parliament about five years ago, in which it was proposed to establish four large provincial asylums: but from some cause, with which we are not made acquainted, the bill was rejected. The consequences of the deficiency are indeed deplorable. The unfortunate sufferers are scarcely ever considered as objects of medical treatment, but, when harmless, are suffered to ramble about the country, exposed to the insults and ridicule of the populace; and, when they shew a disposition to mischief, they are removed to gaols, or workhouses, or some other place of security, where they are confined in gloomy cells, chained in sheds, or have clogs fastened to their legs to prevent their escape. Every man of common feeling must be sensible that some remedy is necessary: but we should doubt whether the



the erection of public asylums at the expense of government be desirable. It seems to be the inevitable result in Ireland of all such schemes, that they sooner or later degenerate into *jobs*; and that what was apparently well calculated to accomplish the object in view serves no other purpose than to put money into the pockets of a few contractors. The path which ought to be pursued, we think, is very obvious; viz. that lunatic asylums should be erected and supported, as they are in Liverpool, Manchester, and many others of the large towns in England, by voluntary subscription. Although great objections may be made to placing lunatics in general hospitals, we see none against making an asylum an appendage to an infirmary; and not only some peculiar conveniences, but a considerable saving of expense, would result from this arrangement. The known liberality of the Irish would certainly enable any one to execute the plan, who would take a little pains to effect it.

Several letters are appended to this tract, from different gentlemen in Ireland, to whom the author sent a set of printed queries. They are of various degrees of merit; the best are from Dr. Poole of Waterford, Dr. Stoker of Dublin, and Mr. Edgeworth. We must give Dr. Halliday the merit of having brought before the public an important fact, and clearly stated an evil of great magnitude: but we wish that the subject had been taken up by some more powerful hand.

Art. 18. *New Medical Compendium*, for the Use of Families, &c. considerably enlarged and improved, by D. Cox, Chemist to His Majesty, Gloucester. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

This work can scarcely be regarded as a proper object for our criticism. It consists of a popular account of the substances which are most frequently employed in practice, and is intended as an accompaniment to a medicine-chest which is prepared and sold by the author. We must, however, in justice say that it appears to us to be one of the best compilations of the kind which has fallen under our observation; and that we find, occasionally interspersed through it, some useful remarks on the pharmaceutical processes that are described. The author has borrowed very largely from Duncan's Dispensatory, and in so doing has certainly shewn his judgment.

#### POLITICS.

Art. 19. *Substance of a Speech delivered by the Right Hon. Viscount Melville*, in the House of Lords, 9th February, 1810, relating to the Reports of the Commissioners of Naval Revision. 8vo. pp. 49. 2s. Mathews and Leigh.

In this speech, relative to a subject which we have already discussed in our present Number, page 314. Lord Melville informed the House of Lords, that six voluminous Reports of these Commissioners, having been referred to the Admiralty, were returned in the course of a few days, with a recommendation that "they should be carried into effect." No *examination* having been bestowed on them, his Lordship draws the inference that the Admiralty is desirous

that the whole responsibility should rest with the Commissioners of Revision; and he proceeds to shew the necessity of a more cordial patronage towards the labours of this Commission. The information acquired by its members was of a progressive nature, and induced them to alter, in their concluding Reports, several things which they had proposed in the outset: but the expiration of the limited time allowed to them, and the death of one of their most efficient members, Mr Fordyce, prevented them from making so complete a digest as they felt to be necessary; and Lord Melville brings the question under public discussion, in order that he may stimulate the Admiralty to accomplish that which the Board of Naval Revision is now unable to effect. His arguments are occasionally interspersed with interesting references to matters of general policy. In regretting the too frequent neglect of the valuable information contained in parliamentary reports, he says:

‘The truth is, that when, at any moment, particular inconveniences or dangers press upon the attention of the public, or of government, it is usual to appoint committees, or take other preliminary steps, with a view to a remedy; but so soon as the pressure, either of inconvenience or alarm, is over, the subject is again forgotten, or gives way to something else, felt more pressing at the moment.’

His Lordship points out, with some emphasis, that he has had no share in advising the proceedings of the present Ministry; observing, ‘In less than twelve months, the Board of Revision lost its best friend by the death of Mr. Pitt. From that period, *I have had no confidential connexion with any of the succeeding governments.*’

The speech is in the usual style of Lord Melville’s composition, —clear and business-like, without any pretensions to ornament.

Art. 20. *Cursory Remarks on the Correspondence between Lord Melville and Mr. Perceval.* 8vo. pp. 33. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

‘This little pamphlet consists of a course of reasoning on the correspondence between these distinguished personages, an abstract of which appeared in the newspapers before the meeting of Parliament. It will be recollected that Mr. Perceval, after having lamented that the prejudice which remained in existence against his Lordship prevented his being called to the Cabinet, expressed His Majesty’s desire to confer an Earldom on him; an offer which, it is well known, Lord M. declined. The writer of this pamphlet censures, as weakness, Mr. Perceval’s attention to what is termed ‘*popular opinion*,’ and he contends that, after the decision of the House of Lords, no other tribunal was to be taken into account. We cannot, however, congratulate him on his success in arguing the general question that a parliamentary decision supersedes every other; nor is any writer likely to carry conviction on this head, while the election of our representatives remains in its present shape. His reasoning has little novelty; but his style would be good if it were more unaffected; at present, it is too full of point.

Art. 21. *England the Cause of Europe’s Subjugation*, addressed to the British Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Johnson and Co.

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The object of this pamphlet, which bears so ungracious a title, is to tell us that, by our former policy, we have brought down humiliation on the continent of Europe; and that, by our present measures, we throw obstacles in the way of peace. The writer enumerates the different occasions on which Bonaparte has offered to negotiate, and argues in favour of his sincerity from the cogency of the motives, which prompt him to seek the consolidation of his power in a state of tranquillity. — Without going quite so far as this author, we cannot help regretting that a large proportion of our countrymen should entertain sentiments diametrically opposite to his, and should have lent their support to measures which are productive of a prodigal waste of blood and treasure: but while we approve, in some degree, the spirit of this pamphlet, we cannot commend its execution. In some parts it carries accusation beyond the proper bounds, and in others it contains tiresome repetitions of well known events. We extract a short passage, (one of the best written in the pamphlet;) in which the author censures the negative given to the overture from Erfurth in Autumn 1808. After having explained the power possessed by the French in Spain, he adds,

‘It was with reference to this power, to his means of effecting his object, and our own of preventing him, that we should have guided our conduct in our reception of his proposals from Erfurth. But the imitators of Mr. Pitt, elated with the attack meditated by Austria, and hurried on by the prejudices they had excited in the nation, forgetting the power and character of Bonaparte, saw his downfall in every opposition directed at his power, and have met with the fortune of their favourite. British ministers have dissipated in ill-timed attacks that strength which would have availed them in peace or in negotiation. They have urged government after government against Bonaparte, the fall of one only operating with them to excite another to become a victim to his rage, and a stepping-stone to his power. Having forced conquest upon him, they accuse him of endless ambition — having thrust objects of rage upon him, they make his rage his crime, and their plea for perpetual hostility against him. The keeper of a menagerie for wild beasts could teach a better and honester policy: — Austria is subdued, Spain is falling.’

#### CLASSICS, EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 22. *Scientiarum Elementa (Græcè et Latine), sive quadam ex Joan. Comenii Opere notissimo excerpta. In Usum studiosæ Juventutis.* 12mo. pp. 101. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

The rudiments of Metaphysics, Natural Philosophy, Geometry, Astronomy, Geography, Chronology and History, Logic, Ethics, Grammar, Rhetoric, Medicine, Jurisprudence, and Theology, are concisely but clearly laid down in this little volume; which, as an exercise-book, may be properly recommended to the lower classes of schools; for we would alter the title into, *In Tironum Usum*. — It concludes with a brief account of Paganism, Judaism, Mohammedanism, and Christianity. The Greek is plain and easy; and we are the more favourably disposed to works of this kind in prose, because we

think that more than a due portion of attention is paid to the cultivation of poetry at our public seminaries: the composition of which, however elegant it may be as an amusement, and however useful as the best means of rendering the scholar acquainted with the niceties of idiomatic expression, and with the more recondite graces of these beautiful languages of classical antiquity, still ought not to supersede the more solid acquirement of a good prose-style; and, above all, should not interrupt that unremitting application which is necessary to the attainment of an early general acquaintance with the elements of the sciences.

Art. 23. *C. Cornelius Tacitus; De Moribus Germanorum, et De Vita Agricola. Ex Editione Gabrielis Brotier. Locis Annalium et Historiarum ab eo Citatis, Selectis et Additis, curâ Ricardi Relhan, A. M. R. S. S. et S. L. A. Flora Cantabrigiensis Auctoris, et Villa de Hemmingby in agro Lincolnensi Rectoris.* 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman and Co.

This is an useful publication. The Treatise of Tacitus on the Manners of the Germans, and his Life of Agricola, are the most popular if not the most highly-finished of his works. They are exactly adapted to the use of the higher classes in schools; and we have them in this volume at a very reasonable price, printed from the expensive and accurate edition of Brotier. We wish that this plan was more generally adopted; and that persons, equally qualified for the task with Mr. Relhan, were willing to undertake the humble but honourable employment of reprinting select parts of the classical writers from the best editions of their entire works.—A selection of notes, as judiciously made as the present, would be a valuable addition to publications of this nature. Some of the classical selections which we have at present are really disgraceful to the highly respectable schools at which they are used: it would be invidious, perhaps, to specify particular works: but the Eton editions were formerly, we may assert, too generally defective in accuracy of text, to escape a severe but deserved reprobation on this occasion. We should, however, in justice add that they have of late years been considerably improved, although ample room for amendment still remains.

Art. 24. *The Mermaid at Home; illustrated with elegant Engravings on Copper-plates.* 16mo. 1s. Harris. 1809.

On the same plan, and in the same style with the "Butterfly's Ball," "Peacock at Home," &c. The object of the writer seems to be to afford amusement for children, and to induce them to practise reading verse. These points will probably be attained by such little allurements; and more cannot be expected because more was not intended.

Art. 25. *The Master Cat; or Puss in Boots.* 16mo. 1s. Dutton.

Art. 26. *The Conjuror; or the Turkey and the Ring. A comic Tale.* 16mo. 1s. stitched, Dutton.

Art. 27. *The Fairy; being the Second of Mother Goose's Tales.* 16mo. 1s. Dutton.

Art.

Art. 28. *Little Thumb and the Ogre*, being a versification of one of the celebrated Tales of Mother Goose. 16mo. 1s. Dutton.

These little compositions for the instruction and amusement of children, are written by the Author of "Old Friends in a New Dress," and answer the intended purpose. The tales are amusing, and the versification is easy.

Art. 29. *Les Premières Leçons d'une aimable Petite Fille*. Par H.E. Chollett de Véréraz. 12mo. pp. 308. Dulau and Co. 1809.

Twelve Dialogues are here supposed to have taken place between a governess and her pupil, during the sixth year of her age, the design of which seems to be to afford lessons for the exercise of young minds, and at the same time to contribute to their moral improvement. The volume may be recommended to teachers of the French language, as well calculated to be put into the hands of beginners.

Art. 30. *Juvenile Dramas*, by the Author of Summer Rambles, &c. &c. 12mo. 3 Vols. Boards. Longman and Co.

To write an entertaining as well as useful book for young persons seems to have been the object of this author; and we have the satisfaction of informing our readers that it is ably accomplished. The subjects of the Dramas are such as more immediately belonging young ladies; and the moral of each paints the ill effects of those indiscretions to which many girls are liable. The fables of these little pieces are artless and pleasing; and the plots, although not intricate, sufficiently engage the attention.

Art. 31. *Mrs. Leicester's School*; or the History of several Young Ladies, related by themselves. 12mo. pp. 179. Godwin. 1809.

The tales of which this volume consists are supposed to have been related by some young ladies to their teacher, in order to give an account of the several incidents which happened to them previously to their coming to school. The original object is said to be that of affording amusement to the young ladies, at their entrance into the Seminary, as well as introducing them to each other. The idea of the writer was that the tales related by children would be most likely to engage the attention of persons of a similar age, and consequently the most convenient way of imparting instruction. The stories are simple, and likely to amuse young children; and, without pretensions to any thing remarkable, they are well calculated to supply knowledge and instruction suitable to tender years.

Art. 32. *Advice from a Lady to her Grand-daughters*, in a Series of familiar Essays on various Subjects. Crown 8vo. pp. 167. 7s. Boards. Hatchard.

We are informed that this work was particularly designed for the use of two children, between the ages of thirteen and fifteen years by whom it was perused with interest and advantage; and we do not hesitate to recommend it, not only to the attention of persons of these ages, but also to young ladies who are some years older. Advice is very requisite for young females when they are leaving school, and  
Y 4 commencing

commenting an acquaintance with the world ; and this volume is calculated to be of the most essential service to them, if put into their hands at this critical period. The counsel which it imparts seems to have been derived from experience ; the sentiments which it contains are just ; the subjects are most important ; and the directions which it gives are such as may be followed without scruple.

To enable our readers in some degree to judge for themselves, we quote the remarks on the subject of politeness :

‘ There is in politeness so penetrating, so powerful a charm, that, in the ordinary commerce of the world, it imperceptibly gives those who have, in an eminent degree, attained it, an appearance of good qualities which they are by no means possessed of, and it either covers, or at least glosses over, their real defects.

‘ Self-love is implanted in our nature by our all wise and beneficent Father, for useful purposes, but, by reason of our weakness, this, as well as other endowments which we have received, is apt to overflow its just boundaries, and thus render each of us too partial, not only to our own merits, but to the qualities of any who have the art of putting us in good humour with ourselves — for though we all know *when* we are pleased, but few, perhaps in fact none of us, always consider *why* we are pleased, or wherefore we approve.

‘ Neither, when influenced by the self-complacency inspired into our minds by the engaging manners, the apparent approbation, or affection of any persons with whom we are in the habit of conversing, do we always stop to consider their just characters ; or how far they are, in reality, entitled to the approbation or esteem which their ingratiating manners have obtained. Hence our self-love produces injudicious fondness, early and sudden intimacies, and confidence too frequently repented of.

‘ Unfortunately, politeness, though truly innocent and amiable in itself, is frequently studied and practised by the selfish and the vain, for the benefit or gratification of the possessor only ; and is, I fear, more generally cultivated as an ornament, than rendered, as it ought to be, a handmaid to virtue.

‘ But my earnest wish for you, my dear children, is, that you should acquire engaging and decorous manners, as a polish and aid to your morality, not as a substitute for virtue, or a cover for defects.

‘ Adopt, I pray you, no false colouring, but let your desire to please, and your solicitude to avoid giving offence, the two great inducements to polite attentions, be the result of benevolence, not of interest or of vanity.

‘ Politeness is not only an ornament but a valuable quality, and promoter of satisfactory enjoyment, when employed to improve the friendly intercourse, which gives a charm to society, by setting the stranger at ease, by softening the malice of the envious, or by conciliating the esteem of the worthy. It is valuable when it encourages the diffident and modest, by appearing sensible of their merits ; when it lowers the *brusquerie* of the rude ; or gives the warm and hasty an opportunity to recover their temper, by a gentle answer, which “ turneth away wrath.” But still more amiable and valuable

is it when exerted in shewing attentions to the unfortunate, particularly at those times, and under those circumstances, in which the unthinking world is disposed to increase the sufferer's melancholy by a mortifying neglect. This is really smoothing the rugged paths of life ; and it is when thus exerted that politeness becomes an aid, as well as an ornament to virtue.'

The concluding suggestions, also, are so full of kindness and good sense, that we should willingly copy them if we had room.

## RELIGIOUS.

Art. 33. *A Letter to a Noble Duke.* on the incontrovertible Truth of Christianity. The second Edition corrected ; to which is now added a Postscript. Crown 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Nornaville and Fell

This manual professes to be an abridgment of Mr. Leslie's *Short and easy Method with the Deists*, which was published more than a century ago, and originally addressed to the Duke of Leeds, with whom it was efficacious in producing an assurance of the truth of Christianity. The four rules by which Mr. Leslie tries the evidences of the Gospel are, '1. That the matter of fact be such, that men's outward senses, their eyes, and ears, may be judges of it. 2. That it be done publicly in the face of the world. 3. That not only public monuments be kept up, but some outward actions be appointed to be performed in memory of it. 4. That such monuments, and such actions or observances be instituted, and do commence from the time that the matter of fact was done.'

By these criteria, the facts recorded in the Jewish and Christian scriptures are tried ; and, as they all conspire or meet on this occasion, it is clearly inferred that these historic facts must be true. In this way the evidence is given with brevity and force.

The present compiler is intitled to thanks, not only for the letter of Mr. Leslie, but for the suitable Postscript, which he has subjoined to this second edition, containing 'a cursory view of the positive Evidence, which has, through the course of so many ages, sanctioned and supported the Belief of Christianity among the most improved, enlightened, and scientific part of mankind ;' extracted from the conclusion of Mr. Bigland's *Reflections on the Resurrection and Ascension of Christ*, published in 1803, and noticed by us M. R. Vol. 41. N. S. p. 92.

The utility of such a compressed exhibition of important evidence cannot be questioned.

Art. 34. *Sacred Elucidations ; or Sunday Evening Remarks*, upon the most important Subjects that can interest the Human Heart, proving the Necessity of spending the Sabbath according to the Divine Command ; peculiarly addressed to the Youthful Part of the Community, but of equal Importance to those of riper Years. By Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. pp. 190. 3s. 6d. Bound. Harris.

The subjects of this volume are treated in the form of sermons, intermixed with short episodes, to make them more entertaining to young people, and the parts of scripture here elucidated are such as concern

concern persons of every age. The sentiments are just, the language is appropriate, and the whole constitutes a very useful Sunday book, for young persons in families of every station.

Art. 35. *Demonstration of the Existence of God from the wonderful Works of Nature*; translated from the French of François Auguste Chateaubriand, and dedicated by Permission to the Lord Bishop of Landaff. By Frederick Shoberl. 12mo 3s. Boards. R. Phillips.

That final causes, or the adaptation of means to ends in the works of nature, are evidences of creative wisdom, and amount to a demonstration of the Existence of God, is a principle which has been ably discussed by our own writers; and we do not perceive that it receives any illustration from the pompous manner in which it is treated by M. Chateaubriand. Towards the end of the volume, the author notices the effect of Christianity on Patriotism, observing that 'the Gospel is not the death of the heart, but its rule. It is to our sentiments what taste is to the fine arts; retrenches all that is extravagant and false, and leaves all that is fair, good, and true.'

This is a just remark; and we are sorry that, in a work which professes to be demonstrative, we do not find more argument and less poetical declamation.

Art. 36. *Familiar Discourses upon the Apostles' Creed, the Lord's Prayer, and the Litany*. By a Dignitary of the Church. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Bickerstaff.

Though we have endeavoured to clear our brains by a pipe of the best Virginia, we have not attained the perspicacity of intellect which enabled this Dignitary of the Church to discover, in the Apostles' Creed, the doctrines of the Trinity, and of everlasting torments or pains. In this formula, not even the eternal generation of the Son, nor even his being "begotten before all worlds," (according to the Nicene Creed,) is asserted, but only his conception by the Holy Ghost in the womb of the Virgin. It therefore appears to us that, in addressing 'a congregation chiefly of the lower class,' it would have been better to leave the comment on this mystery to have been appended to the other creeds, than to have perplexed ordinary minds with a deduction of it from premises which do not warrant the conclusion. The 'Dignitary' informs his congregation that 'it would be much to the happiness of mankind, if they would humbly acquiesce in, and profit by, what they know, rather than grasp at a substance which they have not the ability to reach.' True as this remark is, it is strangely out of place in a discourse which asserts three persons in the Divine Essence to be the first article of the Apostles' Creed, when, by the utmost ingenuity of construction, a tri-unity cannot be gathered from this confession of Faith; however plainly it is laid down in the Nicene and Athanasian creeds.

Much were we surprised to find this author an advocate for a practice which is not enjoined on the church; and which many sensible persons class with those customs that are more honoured in the breach than in the observance.

'The Apostles' Creed (he says) is usually pronounced with the eye of the repeater towards the eastern part of the Heavens. This hath



hath been by many considered a mark of idle superstition. It should be remembered however, that our Church, building itself upon ancient usage, hath retained many forms indifferent in their nature; but yet such as may impress the mind with an awful feeling, derived from emblematical representation.

'As the rising Sun dispels the mists and gloom of the clouded or dark atmosphere, when the night is to close, and the new day begins; so does Knowledge, when it beams upon the darkened mind, remove the veil of ignorance and error. The custom therefore of turning the countenance to the East, when the Creed is rehearsed, hath nothing more in view, than to shew a sense of divine communications rising upon the soul, with the same radiance as the dawn of light and heat upon the animal world. A practice, having this only in its design, cannot be called foolishly superstitious, as it is both innocent in itself, and conveys the idea of grateful humility.'

Why the attitude of turning to the East any more than to the West should be an expression of grateful humility, we are unable to discover. As we acknowledge *God to be a Spirit*, "to whom all hearts are open," the Direction of our faces, in the solemn confession of our Christian Faith, must be immaterial; and we cannot, on any view of that spiritual worship which the Gospel requires, perceive how by turning to the East we 'shew a sense of divine communications rising upon the soul.' A mind truly occupied in devotion will consider the "eye of Jehovah to be alike in every place."

In many respects, we approve the illustrations contained in this volume, and particularly those of the clause "he descended into Hell." The author considers the *Hades* of the Creeds as merely signifying 'the invisible state,' and observes;

'Our Lord had died as Man; his ghost, or life, had been breathed out from his body in the *same* manner, as it quits its hold in any other man, when death shall come. It is, therefore, by parity of reasoning, to be believed, that his Soul was separated from his Body, as it would be in any man, and that it remained in the state of disunion, in the ordinary way of man, till it was recalled, at the day of his Resurrection.

'The word *descended* is here inserted, in allusion to the vulgar conception, "that even, in infinite space, there is a fixed point above our head, and a point beneath our feet. That, upon any occasion, we rise upwards to the Heaven, or sink downwards to the bottom of the Earth." It simply signifies, he departed.'

On the nature of the final punishment of the wicked, the Creed is silent; and therefore the observations, in the 7th sermon, on endless torments, are in our judgment irrelevant. The words "Everlasting Life" in scripture are always taken in a good sense, as expressive of the reward of the Faithful.

The exposition of the Lord's Prayer is judicious, and adapted to the lowest capacities; but we cannot admit the reason assigned in p. 184 for the omission of the Doxology by St. Luke, viz. 'that the Evangelist, to prevent the suspicion of writing in concert, passed over many circumstances recorded by each other.' We believe that the sacred historians wrote under no such impression. The Doxology

is more frequently omitted than inserted in the Church-Service, and this fact is declarative of the opinion of 'the Church Fathers.'

The sermons on the Litany briefly notice the several petitions of that comprehensive devotional service; and the Lecture on the Form of Supplication adverts to the compilation of the Liturgy, informing the reader that it was not the work of any one set of men; nor framed as it now stands at one time, but received additions and alterations from the Reformers.

#### POETRY, &c.

Art. 37. *Repertorio Musicale; ossia Raccolta di varia Poesia. Da J. B. Boschini, Romano. 12mo. Dulau and Co.*

It is not a little extraordinary that, when so much poetry is written in all kinds of rhythm, so small a portion of it is fitted to receive musical expression. Many pretty songs exist in our language which are the pride of the poet, but which cease to be songs in the hands of the most habile musician. We have much *sing-song* in our poetry, and after all but little *song* — Jackson of Exeter, who meritoriously set so many songs, appears to have had his labour much increased by his painful research after suitable words. He rummaged the works of every English poet; he accommodated; he changed expressions: he seized the close of a poem, or unmercifully tore a fragment out of the midst, as suited his purpose; he rejected much, and took little. A circumstance which appears singular is, that the words expressly written for music have turned out in general to be the least fitted for it; while many verses, in the composition of which the poet never thought of the lyre, have been found to be susceptible of the most appropriate and sublime musical expression. It may therefore naturally be asked, what is the reason of this? Music is a peculiar art, and often very ill understood by the poet: he does not know it as a science, and he is unacquainted with its powers as an art: consequently, he writes for it at random, and must often fail. He naturally delights in Description: but Music cannot be made here to go hand in hand with her sister art: she has no appropriate Description; and that which is beautiful in the one art does not *bring out* the beautiful in the other. Music, in seeking for Expression, searches for words which peculiarly excite feeling and passion, but rarely finds them with the modifications which she desires.

We learn that it has been the study of Signior Boschini to remedy in some degree this defect; and the small volume which he offers to the public is a collection of Italian poems, composed, as he informs us, with great care, for the express purpose of being set to music. We observe great diversity in the subjects, and much variety in the measure; light topics for comic songs, and pathetic verses for serious airs; cantatas for recitative, and air and dialogues for duets. The musical composer has only to choose his words, and sit down to his harpsichord and invoke his genius.

It must be granted that nature speaks in many of these little poems, and that they present in general a considerable portion of beauty and elegance: but at the same time we must be allowed to say that not a few instances occur, in which sense is sacrificed to sound and rhythm;  
and

and we may add that we should have been much better pleased, had we met with fewer conceits in the midst of those passages which were surely intended to be pathetic. The first of these faults doubtless arises in a great measure from the purpose of the poet, to write with the view of having his composition clothed with sound; and in such a case his imagination cannot fail to be haunted with the clang of the harpsichord, which we may be assured does not attend him for nothing. The second failing, if we are enamoured with Italian Literature, we must have ceased to consider as a deadly sin: it cannot be called our daily food, but, while thus employed, it is the sauce which makes us relish every meal.

Though we think well in general of the labours of this author, yet, as they are in a foreign language which has ministered to music much that is good, and much that is bad, we are disposed to leave it to professional men to deduce by trial the result. We have here the fabric: will it take the colours and display them to advantage?—We shall present to our readers two short specimens, with which we were pleased; and they will find in this little work many that are not inferior:

*‘ Cosa Bella Mortal Passa e non Dura. Canzonetta.*

A NICE.

<i>‘ Fresca Rosa, Sacra a Flora, D’ Amor vanto, Eri un dì ;</i>	<i>‘ Ma fur Corte Ti partò ; Si bell’ ore, Tanta Sorte Non durò—</i>	<i>Cruda Spina, Senza fior— ‘ Ah, superba Pastorella, Sempre bella Non Sarai, Ed un giorno Per tuo Scorno, Solo avrai Spina Acerba Di dolor’ —</i>
<i>‘ E Paurora Rugiadosa Col suo pianto Ti nutri—</i>	<i>‘ Or languente, Senza foglie, Con la testa Curva e china, Piu non resta Di tue Spoglie, Che pungente</i>	
<i>‘ La mia Nice Presso al Core, Te felice !</i>		

*‘ La Bellezza Senza le Granie.*

ARIA.

- ‘ Non sia che il mondo Apprenzi  
Lung’ ora la belta ;  
Se largo a lei di vezzi  
Il cielo non satà—*
- ‘ E ver che l’occhio adessa ;  
Ma non seduce il Cor :  
Un amo ell’ è senz’ esca,  
E’ un fiore Senza odor.’*

Art. 38. *Poems sacred to Love and Beauty.* By Hugh Downman, M.D. 2 Vols. Crown 8vo. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

In the first volume of this collection, which we have before noticed, *Thespia* “reigns sole empress,” but in the second she is only one in  
a con-

a constellation of beauty ; and Ophelia, Mira, Alicia, Julia, Clara, &c. also attract the poet's homage. It is nevertheless possible that Thespia has in fact no ground for jealousy ; and that Alicia, Julia, and Clara are sketched from the same prototype, after the manner of painters who make one model serve for many pictures. By this contrivance, Dr. D. may have intended to give the appearance at least of variety, as deeming it preferable to the *Petrarchean* monotony of eternally *sonnetizing* the same Laura : but we are not sure that this finesse will avail, and that the recurrence of the same sentiment will escape observation by his giving to the lovely beauty different names. Roses, lilies, coral, ivory, snow and azure, nectar and amber, are put in constant requisition ; and though Dr. D.'s muse is impassioned and flowing, we feel rather impatient on having *too much of a good thing*. For a silver-headed bard, the Doctor's imagination is peculiarly warm :

‘ What power can from my soul remove  
The vision I must ever love ?  
The fair, who raised with sudden fire  
Impetuous tumults of desire ?  
Who felt the kindred passion dart  
Electric ardour to her heart ?  
Nor fear'd with confidence to trust  
A mind, to sacred honour just ?

‘ Those witching glances I survey,  
Those cheeks which blush'd like orient day,  
Those amber locks I still behold,  
Which mock the hue of classic gold.  
I see that snowy neck divine,  
That bosom which I press'd to mine,  
Those lips which breath'd ecstatic bliss,  
The willing twins I taught to kiss,  
I hear thy voice, whose sounds delight,  
With youthful sense, or airy flight ;  
And sighs which speak emphatic thought,  
By curious language idly sought.

‘ But while the vision I behold,  
At once my springs of life are cold ;  
For ah ! the real maid I fear  
Will never to these eyes appear.  
By tyrant force from me exiled,  
I only sport with fancy wild.  
Nor must I hope again to trace  
The bloom irradiating her face ;  
Her smiles to view, to catch the sighs  
Which from her parting bosom rise ;  
Nor while my arms her form enshrine,  
Sustain her glowing cheek on mine.’

Dr. D. does not follow the old rule “ Not to kiss and tell :” if he ‘ presses the ambrosial lip,’ or ‘ sips the fragrant dew,’ he is sure to disclose the joy ; and his muse might not inaptly be termed the *living* muse.

The

The Doctor concludes with expressing a wish that beauty and virtue will weep over their admiring poet, and inshrine his lays in their bosom. Since the volumes were printed, the worthy author has taken a final leave of all terrestrial beauty, and it remains to be seen whether his hopes will be realized.

'Petulance of face' (Vol. ii. p. 17.) is no feature of attractive beauty.

Art. 39. *The Lost Child.* A Christmas Tale, founded upon a Fact. Crown 8vo. 3s. Boards. Harris. 1810.

An interesting little story is here addressed to children, and told in language which they can at least comprehend: but, notwithstanding the apologies for incorrect language which are made in the preface, we cannot agree with the author in thinking that persons 'of the humbler order' must necessarily offend against the rules of grammar, when they are brought forwards in works which are intended to instruct. We conceive that the narrative of 'Honest Walter' might have been rendered characteristic at the expence of much less inelegance; and we should even have risked letting his young admirers entertain overweening notions of his gentility, in preference to presenting them with such stanzas as these:

'Then, as he op'd the cabin door  
And made a scamap's bow;  
I'm com'd to tell your Honour what  
Your Honour 'l like to know.'

Or,

"To Lunnon, then to see my friends,  
Once more I trudged with *be*,  
To try and make a shift to live  
Till I got out to sea."

The author, moreover, is not always happy in his own expressions. The first line of the following stanza wants a word, but is, we believe, a Scotticism:

'Or *cause them go*, full twice a day,  
Where on a board is seen,  
"Young Masters *tort* to read and *rite*  
And children taken in.'

On other occasions, however, when the author is himself speaking, his verses are not devoid of appropriate harmony: the moral of the tale is intitled to commendation; and we imagine that its incidents and catastrophe will not fail to excite the sympathy of the little personages for whose amusement it is intended.

#### MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 40. *Divine and Moral Precepts*, for the Conduct of a Christian towards God and Man. By John Hamond, supposed to have been the Father of Dr. Henry Hamond, Author of the celebrated Annotations

notations on the New Testament, and other learned Works; and written for the Instruction of his Grandson. Published by the Rev. John Plumptre, Prebendary of Worcester. 12mo. pp. 176. 3s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co.

We are told that the manuscript of this volume was lately discovered in the county of Worcester, and is supposed to have been written by Dr. John Hamond; Physician to Prince Henry, (son of James I.,) and father of the celebrated Dr. Hamond mentioned in the title-page. On perusing it, the editor found it to contain so much useful advice, that he was induced to alter its antiquated style, and to lay it before the world. It displays good sense and a knowledge of the world, its sentiments are just, its morality is pure, and its piety is full of devotion. The author seems to have much at heart the good of his grandson, for whose use the work was written; and the public have now an opportunity of enjoying the benefit of his labours. In accommodating the phraseology to the taste of the present age, the editor has evinced his judgment; for which, as well as for making the MS. known, he is intitled to acknowledgement.

## CORRESPONDENCE.

In answer to our correspondent G. T., whose (unpaid) letter bears the post-mark of *Diss*, we shall briefly observe that we consider  $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$  as short; the number of other examples being too numerous for the quantity of the monosyllable to be reckoned doubtful.  $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$   $\gamma$  before a vowel, and  $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$   $\gamma\epsilon$  before a consonant, occur frequently; as also do  $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$   $\gamma\acute{\alpha}\nu$ ,— $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$   $\acute{\alpha}\nu$ ,—and  $\Pi\epsilon\lambda$   $\acute{\alpha}\nu$   $\gamma\epsilon$ .—As to the passages from Homer and Theocritus, which are produced by Morell and others, they are mere *paper and packbread*.—The *dagger*, in Mr. Professor Porson's edition of *Æschylus*, implies that he judged the passage to be corrupt.

Z. Z. Z. must surely know that we never act on anonymous authority. We have not yet seen the work in question: when we have, we can judge better respecting his communication, but it is indispensable that it should be authenticated.

If *Dubitans* were a constant reader of the M. R., he could not *doubt* what must be our answer to his request. We have a thousand times announced the necessity for our always declining such extra official duties as that which he would impose on us.

*Lothario* will apply to himself the above answer to *Dubitans*.

☞ Rev. for February, P. 135. l. 15. for 'Mr. Monk,' read, Mr. Maule.



# THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For A P R I L, 1810.

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ART. I. *The Iliad of Homer*, translated into English Blank Verse, by the Rev. James Morrice, A.M., late of Christ Church, Oxford, and Rector of Betshanger in Kent. 8vo. 2 Vols. 1l. 1s. Boards. White. 1809.

OUR attention has lately been called to a consideration of the relative merits of Blank-verse and of Rhyme, and particularly with reference to translations from the great poetical compositions of former times. A new Blank-version of Homer again directs us to the subject, and compels us to a renewal of the discussion. That we may not be misunderstood in our opinions, we beg leave to premise that we have a veneration, which we hope is nearly equal to that of our opponents, for the names of certain noble English Dramatists, who have shewn how admirably adapted is this measure of Blank-verse to the conduct of theatrical dialogue; and who have displayed, in their incomparable tragedies, all the harmony of which our language is capable. Not to mention the father of our drama, we will yield to none in the glowing sensations of delight which we have felt from the impassioned poetry of Otway; or in the more gentle, but scarcely less gratifying pleasure which we have derived from the soft and melodious versification of Rowe. Without dwelling, also, on the sublimest of our epic poets, (we may say, indeed, our only epic poet,) we have seen, in detached passages of Thomson and Akenside, the full beauty and vigour to which the species of verse under our consideration can attain. Having made these warm acknowledgements, however, let not any fear of the outcry of those, who defend their untenable opinions by discountenancing all examination, prevent us from inquiring into points of some importance to a correct literary taste, and to a due appreciation of the different degrees of poetic merit; namely, what is the comparative difficulty of composing Blank-verse and composing Rhyme; and which of the two measures is the best fitted to the translation of antient poets.

We will not repeat what we have lately urged on this subject, but will begin by criticizing some observations which are to be found in Cowper's Preface to his Homer, in support of his favourite measure \*. Had Mr. Morrice furnished us with any remarks on the reason for *his* choice of Blank Verse, we should not have been obliged to recur to his predecessor: but Mr. M.'s Preface in fact consists of only a string of confessions, tending to manifest the author's own sense of his disqualifications for the work which he has undertaken and published. 'He feels it incumbent on himself,' he says, 'abundantly to apologize for offering a translation of the *Iliad* to the public;—'it was begun and continued as an *amusement*, rather than with a view to publication;—'his motives for now publishing it are not material to relate;—'nor would they afford to others perhaps 'sufficient reason,'—with more of the same apologetic tendency. He does not attempt to point out any faults of predecessors: but successors are encouraged to examine Homer with *more* minute attention than the present translator has exerted; who 'cannot but be well aware that, in the more difficult and obscure passages of an antient Greek poet, he may in various instances either have misconceived or misunderstood his author,' &c. &c.

This is really written in absolute defiance of Johnson's salutary advice to authors, not to express their distrust of themselves too liberally, for fear of being entirely distrusted by their readers. In short, such confessions savour either of conscious inability to perform the task attempted, in a degree which should have prevented the hopeless effort; or of affected fears and pretended modesty, which may irritate the reader to withhold even the indulgence which is due.

Very different is the preface of Cowper. Sensible, perspicuous, and original, as he is in prose at all times, he maintains with a manly firmness his peculiar opinions; and, although we think that those opinions are erroneous, we cannot but be pleased with the ingenuity of their defender. It is, we suppose, a received axiom that wrong results must proceed from wrong principles. Now the allowed failure of Cowper in his

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\* A difference of opinion, on the adaptation of Blank-verse to an English translation of Homer, will be found in this article, and in that which conveyed our review of Mr. Cowper's work; though the judgment respecting the merits of the latter is nearly the same. It is right to account for this incongruity so far as to state that the two articles are not written by the same person; and for once we are inclined to admit a dissonance of sentiment, in order that the reader may be in possession of arguments *pro & con*. on a point of *taste*, which is ever subject to variation and to controversy.



translation of Homer is convincing to us that he set out on a faulty plan : — but we need not argue from effect to cause in this instance, since we do not deem it difficult to trace, in the confession of his poetic creed, the highly probable if not certain heresies of his poetic practice. He writes thus in page 10 of his preface : — (First Edition.)

“ I expect to be told that my numbers, though here and there tolerably smooth, are not always such ; but have, now and then, an ugly hitch in their gait, ungraceful in itself, and inconvenient to the reader. To this charge I plead guilty ; but beg leave in alleviation of judgment to add, that my limping lines are not numerous, compared with those that limp not. The truth, is, that none of them all escaped me ; but, such as they are, they were all made such with a wilful intention. In poems of great length there is no blemish more to be feared than sameness of numbers, and every art is useful by which it may be avoided. A line, rough in itself, has yet its recommendations ; it saves the ear the pain of an irksome monotony ; and seems even to add a greater smoothness to others. Milton, whose ear and taste were exquisite, has exemplified in his *Paradise Lost* the effect of this practice frequently.”

As far as it relates to Milton, this question has been amply discussed, and by no writer with more effect than by Mr. Knight, in his *Essay on Taste*. With regard to Cowper, we must beg leave to make several remarks on the above paragraph. — He introduces it as an anticipation of what he calls “ un-candid criticism.” Now positively we must maintain that he is rather *too* candid a critic on his own versification, when he says “ that his limping lines are not numerous, compared to those that limp not.” To decide this point, nothing less is necessary than the painful perusal of his whole translation ; and our opinion, founded on that painful perusal, is that the reverse of the above assertion is the truth. His proposition as to the sameness of numbers is self-evident : but, levelled as it plainly is at Pope, we cannot allow it to be just in its particular application : or, for the sake of argument, supposing it to be so, is not Dryden a model from whom Cowper might have copied the variety of numbers ? — aye, every possible variety of musical pause and cadence, — and not have been reduced to the confession that he wilfully made some of his lines rough, to set off the smoothness of the rest. They do indeed want such a foil ; and we cannot wonder at the importance which he attaches to comparative harmony : but the “ *vocum concordia discors*,” as applied to poetry, is unintelligible, and not to be carried into effect. Each line, taken by itself, (except in cases in which roughness of sound is imitative of the subject described,) should have enough of flow to distinguish it from

prose; and we contend that this rule is so often violated by Cowper, that much of his Homer, (not to say his original Blank-verse,) if printed in the form of prose, would only be distinguishable from Macpherson by the good sense and taste of the former, which secured him from the bombastic and absurd language of the latter: nay, it would often be inferior, in the technical essentials of poetry, to the prose run-mad of that rhapsodist.

After some remarks on the fancied superiority of Blank-verse over Rhyme for a translation of Homer, (a part of the question which belongs to the second division of our inquiry,) Cowper proceeds to state the comparative difficulty, as he conceives the matter to stand, of composing these two species of verse. Here, as we might suppose, he exalts his favourite: but, if what we have asserted above be true, however specious his theory may be, it will appear to be irreconcilable to practice,—at least to his own practice. We will examine his opinions, sentence by sentence. “To rhyme in our language demands no great exertion of ingenuity, but is always easy to a person exercised in the practise. Witness the multitudes who rhyme, but have no other poetical pretension.” We add, witness also the multitudes who write blank-verse, (including playwrights, more numerous even than the rhymists,) and who have no other poetical pretension. The argument, then, from frequency to facility of composition, is on a par in both cases: but we should consider best specimens in either kind, and examine the difficulty in the perfection of the execution.—Cowper proceeds: “Let it be considered too, how merciful we are apt to be to unclassical and indifferent language for the sake of rhyme; and we shall soon see that the labour lies principally on the other side.” We do not think that this mercy is so prevalent; nor, if it were, would the argument be applicable to the best writers. If we set against this imagined mercy the proneness of the English language,

“To run, in conversation, of itself,  
Into Blank-verse,”

and the liberty of extending paragraphs to any length,—a liberty affording facilities indeed, when compared with the necessary compression of the couplet,—if we oppose, we say, these facts to Cowper's hypotheses, shall we agree with him? He continues;—“Many ornaments of no easy purchase are required, to atone for the absence of this single recommendation.” Surely, then, there must be something intrinsically valuable, proper, and natural, in the use of rhyme. “It is not sufficient that the lines of blank-verse be *smooth* in themselves”

selves," (he argued just now that they should occasionally be *rough*; and he extends this argument greatly, as we shall soon observe,) "they must also be harmonious in the combination." So must rhymes; and again, to say nothing of Pope, (at all events the most *melodious* of writers,) Dryden in his best poems, in his Fables particularly, would have afforded Cowper a perfect example of that *harmony*. By *melody*, in poetical composition, we mean the music of one particular flow of verse; recurring, as it does perhaps too frequently (though this accusation has been unjustly aggravated) in the couplets of Pope. By *harmony*, we mean the whole effect of a passage, in which a variety of pauses and cadences is pleasingly combined; as in some of the beautiful paragraphs, or rather systems of verse, that are to be found in Dryden.

Pope himself has described what we mean, with his usual precision and elegance:

"Waller was smooth; but Dryden taught to join  
The varying verse, the full, resounding line,  
The long majestic march, and energy divine!" }

How Pope could throw discredit on the Alexandrine, after such an instance of its magnificent and sonorous effect, we cannot imagine. Dryden well knew its value.

To proceed with Cowper's argument.—"The chief concern of the rhymist is to beware that his couplets and his sense be commensurate; lest the regularity should be (too frequently at least) interrupted." A couplet is capable of great variety of constitution; and Cowper's remark soon afterward, "on shifting the place of the pause in blank-verse," may be equally (that is, when justly modified) applied to rhyme. The regularity of couplets, if by regularity be meant the *same* musical flow, *should* be frequently interrupted: if by irregularity be meant roughness, *that* we have before contended is inadmissible:—but Cowper, having begged the question, and supposed it to be granted that "the chief concern of the rhymist is to beware that his couplets and his sense be commensurate," continues to remark that "this is a trivial difficulty, compared with those which attend the poet unaccompanied by his bells. He, in order that he may be musical, must exhibit, as he proceeds, all the variations of which ten syllables are susceptible." No—he must not, because several of those variations are unmusical. "Between the first syllable and the last there is no place at which he must not occasionally pause; and the place of the pause must be perpetually shifted." The first member of this sentence we have considered above; the second recom-

mends a practice which would make a poem like these barbarous compositions in which every species of verse was mingled; and, consequently, the effect of a Dutch Concert would be produced on the ear of the reader. If the *cæsura* is to be so continually changed, the lines will run like Dactyls, Anapestics, Trochaics, and Iambics jumbled together. The whole composition will look like a party-coloured coverlit, made of patchwork, without unity of design or consistency of execution. No;—as Cowper's favourite author Milton charmingly describes the perfection of musical sound, true poetry must flow along

“ In many a winding-bout  
Of linked Harmony long drawn out.”

“ To effect this variety” (namely the variety of a perpetually altered rhythm), Cowper continues, “ the attention of the writer of blank-verse must be given, at one and the same time, to the pauses he has already made in the period before him, as well as to that which he is about to make, and to those which shall succeed it.” What a mechanical, petty, degrading occupation is this, in which the poet is represented as engaged! and we shall immediately see by the simile which he uses, how Cowper considered the labour (for it must have been a labour to a writer who thus describes it) of poetical composition. A genuine poet, blest with the original fire and inspiration of fancy and harmony, will involuntarily and without thought or trouble fall into all the variety of measure which is necessary for musical effect. To attempt continual variety is, as we before urged, ridiculous;—nay, it is to frustrate the attainment of the very object in view, the harmonious combination of numbers.

“ On no lighter terms than these,” says the departed critic, “ is it possible that blank-verse can be written which will not in the course of a long work fatigue the ear past all endurance.” We know not any long work in which it does not so fatigue our ear; but, supposing that we are wrong in point of taste, can Cowper in point of fact be right, in saying that any poet ever stopped the course of his imagination, or suspended the exercise of his judgment on the subject before him, in order to weigh so minutely not only the manner of his expressing it, but to count so meanly the number and the position of his pauses?—Surely not; and we cannot refrain from fancying the indignation of Cowper's great original, if,

“ Where thron'd he sits amid the realms of rest,”

he could hear his translator thus debasing the noble employment of rendering his works into our native language!—“ If it be  
easier

easier therefore," (we burn as we transcribe,) "to throw five balls into the air, and to catch them in succession, than to sport in that manner with one only, then may Blank-verse be more easily fabricated than Rhyme."

We must draw to a close on this part of our subject. — Cowper concludes by saying that "if to these labours we add others equally requisite, a style in general more elaborate than rhyme requires, and farther removed from the vernacular idiom, both in the language itself and the arrangement of it, we shall not long doubt which of these two very different species of verse threatens the composer with most expence of study and contrivance." He finally appeals to his own experience, and asserts that he found it more difficult to compose blank-verse than rhyme. We shall only observe that we believe this to be an extraordinary case: but, as to the style of blank-verse, we contend that Shakspeare, Otway, Rowe, and some of our didactic poets, in their chaste and judicious passages, do not adopt a more elaborate style than our best writers of rhyme; that the Latinized or inverted order of language, too frequently imitated by Milton, is among his faults; and that a stiff, pedantic, and what is falsely called a classical phraseology, ("removed," as Cowper says, from our "vernacular idiom,") is one of Cowper's own defects in his translation of Homer; — not to add, in his original poems; poems which, whatever may be our opinion of their general style and versification, we highly admire in many passages for their good sense, and energy and originality of thought.

We have left ourselves but little room, from the length at which we have discussed the question of relative facility in composing blank-verse and rhyme, for the other division of our inquiry; namely, the superiority of one of these measures over the other as the vehicle of translation from the antient poets. — Cowper declares most roundly that there is no difficulty in the question, and decides it in his own favour at once. We dislike this Star-chamber sort of proceeding; and though we also are perhaps strongly biassed towards our own opinion, we shall endeavour to account for our prepossession somewhat more logically.

"I will venture to assert," he says, "that a just translation of any antient poet in rhyme is impossible." Let us clear our dispute from the ambiguity of terms. By *just* does Cowper mean *literal*? No—his good sense was far above such an application of the word. What does he mean, then? That *freedom* is *justice*, we shall not expect to hear from him. — Is he of opinion that an English author should attempt to write as he conceives his original would have done, had he been an Englishman, living

in our times? On the contrary, he combats this position with much propriety. "This," as he justly says, "is a direction which wants nothing but practicability to recommend it. For suppose six persons, equally qualified for the task, employed to translate the same antient into their own language with this rule to guide them. In the event it would be found, that each had fallen on a manner different from that of all the rest, and by probable inference it would follow, that none had fallen on the right. On the whole, therefore, as has been said, the translation which partakes equally of fidelity and liberality; that is close, but not so close as to be servile; free, but not so free as to be licentious, promises fairest." It does so, certainly; and we are well satisfied with this definition of a *just* translation, though we have been left to gather it from different parts of Cowper's preface:—but is not such a *just* translation to be made in rhyme as well as in blank-verse? Can we not, in the former method, preserve all the material part of the sense of the original, and transfuse the whole of the spirit into our version? Well and boldly does Dryden say, "A noble author will *not* be pursued by too close a version. We lose his spirit, when we think to take his body. The grosser part remains with us; but the soul has flown away in some delicate turn of thought or expression." That Dryden (except in his admirable translations from Lucretius) carried this liberal principle too far, we are ready to allow. Pope, also, is undoubtedly culpable for having expunged, in some few cases, whole lines of the original; and for having incorporated, in more instances, his own ideas with those of Homer: but, "take him for all in all, we ne'er shall look upon his like again." He has in every noble passage the spirit, and sometimes even more than the spirit, of the glorious Greek; and throughout his long work, (a work, we will venture to affirm, which is unrivalled in any language,) he is animated, he is entertaining, he is poetic. We may, however, refer to his own most excellent preface, and to many of his notes, for the best defence of the liberties which he has taken with his original; and particularly for that liberty of polishing the asperity and softening the rudeness which are incidental to Homer, as the historian (in relation to manners) as well as the poet of so early a period, but which are absolutely irreconcilable with the refined taste of an advanced æra of society.

The following is Cowper's only objection to a translation in rhyme. "No human ingenuity," he urges, "can be equal to the task of closing every couplet with sounds homotonous, expressing at the same time the full sense, and only the full sense of the original." What he adds concerning the translator's  
ingenuity

ingenuity being a snare to him is undoubtedly true : but we are to suppose the full exercise of the judgment, and then the question will be, have we not a sufficient variety of synonyms in the wild copiousness of the English language, to afford the terminations required ? We think that we have ; and that it would only have demanded a little additional labour in Pope, to have approached nearer to the solution of that difficult problem, the questionable possibility of reconciling fidelity with spirit in poetical translation. Brewster has almost solved this problem in his correct and vigorous copy of Persius. Were there not something in exalted genius that is repugnant to precision in trifles, we believe that Pope would have been as perfectly Homer, as, supposing the metempsychosis to be true, Pythagoras was Euphorbus. At all events, we were sorry indeed to see the feelings of a relation operate so strongly on a respectable veteran of literature, now living, as to make him assert "that Pope's character of Bentley was as unlike the original, as Pope's translation was unlike Homer."

We must now, however, address our critical patroness, whichever of the Muses she may be, in the words of Horace ;

— "*Desine pervicax  
Referre sermones Deorum, et  
Magna modis tenuare parvis.*"

Let us come, then, to the "*Modi parvi*" of Mr. Morrice. They are indeed sections of pure prose ; or distinguishable (as we are obliged often to remark of our poets) from that humbler style of composition, solely by the capes and bays and promontories which appear in the dry land of the text, floating as it usually does in the milky flood of margin. Could this version be measured at the end of the lines by a rule, as evenly as it can at the beginning, the lines themselves contain nothing to mark them from a charity-sermon, or a maiden speech in the House of Commons. They are indeed infinitely less obliged to the artificial aid of language "removed from the vernacular idiom, and differing in arrangement" from the common forms of speech, than Cowper's verses. They do not strut on stilts, nor even rise above the mud in sounding pattens ; they slop quietly through it in slippers down at the heels, and catch so much cold in their progress that the reader never catches fire in the perusal of them. Yet we really so much prefer anything to unnatural inflation and bombast, that we had rather read simple conversation in verse, than see it forced above its level like water by steam-engines.— "*Non fumum ex fulgore, sed ex fumo dare lucem,*" seems to have been the attempt of Mr. Morrice : but alas ! he is lost in the smoke, and

and will expire, we fear, like the snuff of a candle, leaving no sweet savour of a good reputation behind him. Let us contrast him with his more lofty competitor. Let us see how they both make Jupiter *nod* in the first book of the *Iliad*. They both seem to have taken for their motto in this translation the remark of Horace,

— “*Quandoque bonus DORMITAT Homerus,*”

and accordingly they have given us a *sleeping* instead of a *waking nod*. Yet we prefer Morrice, as being more *English*, more natural, and more pleasing than Cowper; who imagines dignity and difficulty to be synonymous, and confounds the inverted arrangement of words with the noble expression of ideas. Let our readers decide.

“He ceas’d; and under his dark brows the nod  
Vouchsaf’d of confirmation. All around  
The sov’reign’s everlasting head his curls  
Ambrosial shook, and the huge mountain rest’d.” Cowper.

“He spake, and nodded with his awful brow;  
From his immortal head th’ ambrosial hair  
Deep-flowing wav’d; and from it’s lofty top  
Olympus trembled to it’s utmost base.” Morrice.

We will not degrade Pope by a comparison; for we by no means accord with *Melmoth’s* objections to his version of this passage. In Cowper, we can never find the “*disjecti membra poeta*,” nay, we can rarely even make sense of his words when separated from the context. This defect arises from the use of the Latin order, as we most plainly see at the beginning of the second line of the above passage, “*vouchsafed of confirmation*.” Now if this occurred but seldom, it would be a fault inseparable from any style: but it is Cowper’s peculiarity, a peculiarity injudiciously copied from Milton, and much heightened in the imitation.

We turn to Hector’s reply to Helen in the sixth book, which is thus given by Mr. Morrice:

“Detain me not,” the valiant chief replied;  
Thy kindness I acknowledge, but my mind  
Forbids delay when I may succour Troy,  
Which now my presence waits. Do thou, mean-time,  
Urge Paris to the field, that he forthwith,  
When arm’d, may join me at the Scæan gate. —  
I go, a last farewell, perhaps, to take  
Of those my soul most loves, my wife and child;  
Heav’n knows if ever I again return,  
Or perish by the Grecian host, o’erwhelm’d.”

Cowper renders the passage as follows;—

“To



“ To whom the warlike Hector *huge* replied ;  
 Invite not me, fair Helen ! to a seat  
 (Though kindness prompt thee) which I must refuse,  
 By this emergence hurried to the aid  
 Of friends, much needing me. Thou, therefore, urge  
 This loit’rer forth, nor let himself employ  
 Less haste to reach me ere I quit the town,  
 For I shall hence to visit at our home  
 My lov’d Andromache, mine infant boy,  
 And my domestics ; whom if I shall view  
 Hereafter, or the gods ordain me first  
 To fall in battle, is unknown to me.”

Here we have no reason to complain of bombastic language, for Morrice and Cowper amicably divide the palm of insipidity. Cowper, however, has one *grand*, or rather *huge* epithet, of which he says in the note—“ The bulk of his heroes is a circumstance of which Homer frequently reminds us by the use of the word *μεγας* and which ought therefore by no means to be suppressed.”—Certainly not, but still less ought it to be expressed thus,

“ To whom the warlike Hector HUGE replied—”

Wretched, indeed, must be *his* taste, who does not feel the awkwardness and absurdity of this line ! Yet Cowper felt it not, and the line has a thousand parallels in his translation of Homer. — Still worse is his unauthorized invention of compound epithets. He lessened their number, indeed, in the revision of his second edition, and harmonized a few of his rugged lines : but, in his account of that edition, he still clings to his favourite variation of the pauses ; or rather to his new, improved, patent style of versification, by which the most decided prose is made verse, without the assistance of rhythm, rhyme, or reason ! As to his compound epithets, can anything in language be more execrable than the phrases of “ horse-taming Hector,” and “ blood-nourished Mars ?”—Pope, in one of his notes, has admirably exposed this absurdity ; or, rather, has treated it as impossible to be committed, little thinking of what a future age would produce. In measuring the follies of posterity by those of his own day, he forgot the progressive nature of all that is perverted and ridiculous in the human mind.

Let us now examine the rival blank-verse translators of the *Iliad* in their expression of the sorrows of Andromache. Book the Sixth.

“ Ah ! doom’d, thyself, the victim of thy own  
 Too daring courage ! Pity of thy boy  
 Thou feel’st not, or of me, thy widow soon,  
 For soon the whole united Grecian host

Will overwhelm thee, and thou must be slain.  
 Earth yield me, then, a tomb ! for refuge else,  
 Or none so safe, have I ; thenceforth forlorn  
 Of all defence, since father I have none,  
 Or mother's genial home to shelter me." • Cowper.

After having described the destruction of all her family, the matron thus proceeds :

" All these are lost ! but in thy wedded love,  
 My faithful Hector, I regain them all.  
 Come then—let pity plead ! to spare thy boy  
 An orphan's woes, and widowhood to me,  
 Defend this town," &c. &c. Cowper.

These last lines are very good. The words are properly placed, the poetry is musical, and the whole effect is what it ought to be.—Would that such passages were more frequent in this work ! It would indeed be a delightful task to observe the beauties of a translation of Homer, written by a man of such excellence, and an author of such acknowledged genius, as Cowper.—Mr. Morrice falls very short of the happy conclusion of the passage which we have just quoted. His opening lines indeed are less twisted and difficult in construction, but *they* also want flow and vigour :

' Ill-fated prince ! whose daring courage brings  
 Destruction with it, ah ! reflect awhile !  
 An orphan child, a wretched widow'd wife,  
 Thy pity claim : tempt not the doubtful war,  
 Lest hosts entire o'erwhelm thee : ere that day  
 I see, heaven close these eyes ! deprived of thee,  
 No ray of comfort, but unceasing woes  
 Await me, wretched : father I have none,  
 And mother, none !'—

' Thou, Hector, art my father ; thou to me  
 A mother, husband, brother ; in thee all  
 United I behold ; in pity then,  
 Rest here and guard us, lest of thee bereft,  
 A widow'd wife and orphan mourn thy fate.'

The divine description of the army, at the end of the 8th book, (Pope's translation of which passage is the finest burst of poetry that we anywhere possess,) is thus represented by Cowper :

" Big with great purposes and proud, they sat,  
 Not disarray'd, but in fair form dispos'd,  
 Of even ranks, and watch'd their numerous fires.  
 As when around the clear bright moon, the stars  
 Shine in full splendour, and the winds are hush'd,  
 The groves, the mountain tops, the headland heights,  
 Stand all apparent, not a vapour streaks

The boundless blue, but ether open'd wide  
 All glitters, and the shepherd's heart is cheer'd.  
 So num'rous seem'd those fires, between the stream  
 Of Xanthus blazing, and the fleet of Greece,  
 In prospect all of Troy ; a thousand\* fires,  
 Each watch'd by fifty warriors seated near,  
 The steeds beside the chariots stood, their corn  
 Chewing, and waiting till the golden-thron'd  
 Aurora should restore the light of day." Cowper.

This is a good night-scene, and only suffers from being a foil to the splendid picture in Pope. Cursorily remarking how judiciously as well as beautifully this last-mentioned author has introduced a natural circumstance into the description of the horses chewing their corn, (of itself but a rude and unpoetical image,) in the following couplet,

" Loud neigh the coursers o'er their heaps of corn,  
 And ardent warriors wait the rising morn,"

we now turn to Mr. Morrice :

' Elated with success the troops around  
 Sat joyful, and the plain illumin'd shone  
 With frequent fires. As when unnumb'ed stars  
 Round the pale moon their light refulgent shed,  
 When every breath is hush'd, projecting rocks  
 Are seen, and summits of stupendous height,  
 And deep'ned valleys close the varied scene ;  
 The vast expanse of heav'n's high arched roof  
 Bursts on the sight, and every star appears ;  
 A secret joy pervades the shepherd's breast ;  
 So through the plain by rapid Xanthus' stream  
 Blaz'd numerous fires, a thousand burning fires,  
 And each a band of fifty chosen troops  
 Assiduous guard ; their coursers ready stand,  
 And all impatient wait the coming morn.'

The last line is imitated and enfeebled from Pope.

One more quotation from each of Pope's successors, and we have done, we hope for ever, with translations of Homer. It would be vain, indeed, for any writer but one of the greatest genius to attempt such a task again ; and such a genius would be ill employed in the labour of supplying the few deficiencies of Pope. To rival his excellence, we believe, is impossible ; and at all events the trial would be superfluous. We by no means think that, in poetical translation, nothing is effected while

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\* May we, *en passant*, remark here on the chance correctness of Homer's astronomical simile ? more than a thousand stars not being discoverable by the naked eye at one view.

anything remains undone. Give us as good a general representation of every antient poet, as Pope has given us of Homer, and we shall be well satisfied.—We believe, too, that the generality of readers would be equally contented.

Hector's speech to the Trojans, and his valiant attack on the Grecian wall, at the end of the 12th book, afforded both our translators a fine opportunity for displaying their poetic powers. We have only room for Hector's entrance at the gate, after he has burst it open.

" In leap'd the godlike Hero at the breach,  
Gloomy as night in aspect, but in arms  
All dazzling, and he grasp'd two quiv'ring spears.  
Him, entering with a leap the gates, no force  
*Whate'er of opposition had repress'd,*  
*Save of the Gods alone.* Fire fill'd his eyes;  
Turning, he bade the multitude without  
Ascend the rampart; they his voice obey'd;  
Part climb'd the wall, part pour'd into the gate,  
The Grecians to their hollow galleys flew  
Scattered, and tumult infinite arose." Cowper.

" Then Hector, dreadful as the shades of night,  
Rush'd through the breach, from his resplendent arms  
Of polish'd brass blaz'd terror and dismay;  
Two spears aloft he bore; nor less than gods  
Had check'd his course, so fierce his eye-balls glar'd;  
Then bade advance his host and scale the walls;  
They o'er the battlements or through the gate  
Obedient to his voice rush'd on amain.  
The routed Greeks retreated to their ships;  
Tumult and noise, and shouting rent the sky."

We have purposely consulted our reader's amusement in the above quotations, by selecting them from the most popular parts of Homer; and we have by this method, also, afforded the rival translators the fairest occasion for displaying their several qualities. Cowper, as it appears to us, writes less naturally and pleasingly than Morrice; although the latter is utterly deficient even in the semblance of vigour. The former, to borrow a noble illustration from Johnson, and to apply it anew, "has the nodosities of the oak without its strength; the contortions of the Sybil without her inspiration."

Had we chosen to render either or both of these translators ridiculous, we might, from the less animated passages of the original, have selected specimens of their versions which are dull indeed and imperfect. We might have copied Cowper in many such lines as the following:

" Hippothoris

"Hippothoris the spear-arm'd Pelasgians led."—

Cowper—Iliad 2.

or,

"Her then the Goddess of love-kindling smiles,  
Venus, thus answer'd: "Diomed the proud,  
Audacious Diomed, he gave the wound,  
*For that I stole Æneas, my own Son,*  
*From battle, dearest of mankind to me!"*

Cowper—Iliad 5.

or,

"But when the wound once dry, had ceas'd to bleed,  
*Anguish intolerable undermin'd*  
Then all the might of Atreus' royal Son."

Cowper—Iliad 11.

or,

"So Priamæian Hector cheer'd his host  
Magnanimous against the Sons of Greece,  
Terrible as gore-tainted Mars."— Ibid.

Enough, however, of the faults of a writer, who, as we again and again must assert, has great claims on the admiration of his countrymen, for the originality and for the application of his genius, as far as the purest morality and good sense extend: but whose translation of Homer will sleep for ever by the side of Chapman, Hobbes, and Ogilby; undisturbed except by the hands of the few sectaries who prefer the heretical blank-verse of Cowper to the orthodox rhyme of Pope. As to Mr. Morrice,

"Poor is the triumph o'er the timid hare;"

and we shall

"No farther seek his merits to disclose,  
Nor draw his frailties from their dread abode."

He too shall enjoy (we speak in the tone of decided prophecy) a perpetual repose: but if he be perchance awakened for a moment by some curious collector "of all such reading as was never read," we think that his familiar, easy, gentlemanlike, conversation-style of poetry will be preferred to the turgid harshness and pompous inanity of his rival.

ART. II. *A Review of the Reports to the Board of Agriculture, from the Northern Department of England: comprizing Northumberland, Durham, Cumberland, Westmoreland, Lancashire, Yorkshire, and the mountainous Parts of Derbyshire.* By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. pp. 536. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1808.

ART. III. *A Review of the Reports to the Board of Agriculture, from the Western Department of England; comprizing Cheshire, Flintshire, Shropshire, Herefordshire, Worcestershire, Gloucestershire, North Wiltshire, North Somersetshire.* By Mr. Marshall, Author of various Works on Agriculture, and other Branches of Natural, Political, and Rural Economy: whose Surveys and Registers, relating to those Subjects, are the Prototype and Groundwork of the Reports to the Board of Agriculture. 8vo. pp. 536. 12s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1810.

PERHAPS no individual in the united kingdom is better qualified for the task of reviewing the Reports which have been presented to the Board of Agriculture, than Mr. Marshall; whose experience and knowledge of every department of political economy and rural affairs are amply registered in his own luminous publications: but we are concerned to discover, on the present occasion, a degree of irritation which savours more of pique than of a dignified love of science. Like Hannibal, who swore perpetual enmity to the Romans, Mr. Marshall seems to have vowed constant hostility to the first President of the Board of Agriculture; whose crime against the author is said to be of such a nature 'that it would be a crime in him to forgive it.' Conceiving that he has been unhandsonely treated in the business of the appointment of *the Board of Agriculture*, since no reference had been made to his original scheme of *A Rural Institute, or Seminary of Rural Economy*, and since the scheme bore to him the appearance of a *job* which was clandestinely managed 'to gratify the ambitious cravings of the first President, and to reward a recent change of political sentiments in the Secretary,' Mr. M. gives full scope to his resentment. We are not fully acquainted with the merits of the case, and can no otherwise judge of it than from the *ex parte* evidence before us: but on the face of this testimony it appears that Mr. Marshall was kept in the back ground, and that in the appointment of the Board of Agriculture his acknowledged merits were not honoured with that notice to which they were intitled. Still, however, we apprehend that it would have been better, at this distance of time, to have smothered his ire, since very few of his readers will enter into his feelings; and it may perhaps be thought by some that this irritable temper of mind has operated as a *film* before the eye of his judgment, that he is too harsh in his

his condemnation, and that he has attempted to affix censures too indiscriminately. He calls the plan on which the Reports are drawn up 'a chaotic syllabus;' he pronounces the reporters to be '*sav* observers;' he ridicules the Board, 'as a Board of book-making rather than of agriculture;' and he complains of being forced to contend with 'a hired corps,' who in their conduct towards him as an author have 'added murder to robbery.' The original Reports are stated to be "without form and void;" he indulges himself with a 'Ha! ha! ha!' at the chapter intitled Political Economy; and he regards the whole outline as 'a chaos of chapters and sections.' In point of arrangement, nothing seems to please Mr. Marshall, and least of all the survey of Britain by Counties instead of by Departments.

As far as we are able to decide on this latter point, it appears to us of no great consequence which of the two methods is adopted, provided that the kingdom be *well* and *fully* surveyed. We have always regarded the Reports merely as materials towards the agricultural history of our country; and even the use which Mr. M. has made of them clearly proves that they have not been altogether without effect. His account of the necessary qualifications of a reporter is certainly correct: but the character which he delineates very rarely occurs, and it must happen that the task of surveying counties will be assigned to men of unequal abilities and experience. Errors and deficiencies are almost unavoidable in undertakings of this nature; and we trust that the Board will, in spite of Mr. M.'s declaration of unforgiveness, avail itself of his animadversions on the Reports\*. We shall neither undertake to vindicate the first President of the Board from the charge of plagiarism, which Mr. M. prefers against him in constructing the plan of the Reports, nor shall we take part with his accuser: but we are clearly of opinion that the arrangement of the materials in this critical compilation is preferable to that which has been followed in the Reports themselves; and if this reviewer has compressed the useful matter of eight volumes into one, (a merit to which he lays claim,) he deserves some thanks for having endeavoured to save at once both the time and the purse of the agricultural reader.

From a man of Mr. M.'s very extensive experience, "a hint is most important advice;" and though in regard to collecting materials we do not altogether accede to his condemnation of the county-surveys, we think that his arrangement of the kingdom into six agricultural Departments requires very particular attention,

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\* All these criticisms ought to have been applied to the re-printed Reports, and not to the original Sketches which were circulated *gratis*.

even independently of its being followed in the present review. These Departments are thus denominated and characterized :

‘ **THE NORTHERN DEPARTMENT.** Among its natural characteristics are a coolness of climate, and a backwardness of seasons, comparatively with the more southern parts of the island. But its most striking natural feature,—that which distinguishes it from the rest of *this* kingdom,—is given by its Mountains :—this being the only part of England, in which the mountain character can be said to prevail \*.

‘ Viewed as a field of Rural Economy, it bears strong marks of distinction. On the western side of the department, Manufactures may be said to be in possession of the country. Agriculture there is a subservient employment ; while, on the eastern, it flourishes in all its branches, being there carried on with a degree of skill and industry, and with a *rational, well moderated spirit of improvement* that is not equalled in any other department of *this* kingdom.

‘ **THE WESTERN DEPARTMENT.** This extends from the banks of the Mersey to the Somersetshire Avon and its banks. On the west it is bounded by the Welsh mountains, on the east by the minor hills of Staffordshire, and the uplands of Warwickshire, and Oxfordshire, its southern bounds being given by the chalk hills of Wiltshire, and the Sedgemoots of Somersetshire.

‘ It comprizes an almost uninterrupted succession of Vale Districts, which accompany the Mersey, the Dee, the Severn, and the Avon, to their respective confluxes with the sea. Thus, by natural character it is discriminately marked.

‘ And it is not less so by Agricultural produce. The entire department, except the higher lands of Shropshire and Herefordshire, the Cotswold hills of Gloucestershire, and the higher parts of the Mendip hills of Somersetshire, may be said to be almost wholly applied to the produce of the Dairy ; cheeses, of different qualities, being its common production. Fruit-liquor, however, may be mentioned as another product that signalizes this natural division of the kingdom.

‘ **THE MIDLAND DEPARTMENT.** This part of the kingdom, too, possesses an aptly distinguishing natural character. When compared with the great variety of soil and surface, which most of the other departments exhibits, this may be considered as one widely extended plain of fertile lands, which are almost uniformly suitable to the purposes of Mixed Cultivation, and without a single *eminence* within its extensive area, excepting the Charnwood hills, which form an insulated mountain height, from whence almost every square mile of the department may be discerned from the mountains of the northern to the chalk hills of the southern department ; and from the rising grounds that separate it from the western to the banks of the marshes where the eastern department commences.

‘ As a wide field of Agriculture, in which every branch of the profession is highly cultivated, it has long been popularly known.

‘ \* Those, in the West of England, mostly rise in detached masses, and are of comparatively small extent.’

Here



Here, not only the spirit of improvement, but of *enterprise*, may well be said to inhabit. The art, science, and mystery of Breeding has here been carried to a height which in any other country, probably, it has never attained; the same enterprizing spirit, which led to this pre-eminence, still continuing with little if any abatement.

'The EASTERN DEPARTMENT is marked by its Fens and Marshes, as well as by the light sandy quality of its Uplands,—joint natural qualities that belong to no other extensive division of the kingdom.

'The agricultural pursuits of this department are directed, in a singular manner, to Grazing, to the fatting of cattle and sheep, not only in the marshes and lower grounds, but on the uplands, on which the Turnip Husbandry has long been, and until of later years exclusively, practised.

'The SOUTHERN DEPARTMENT. The Chalk Hills, which occupy the principal part of this division, strongly mark its natural character.

'Its agricultural distinctions arise, in a great degree, out of its situation with respect to the Metropolis; a vortex this, which not only draws much of its produce in a summary way to market, but causes a demand for particular objects of husbandry.

'The SOUTH-WESTERN DEPARTMENT. The situation of this extremity of the island is remarkable. It stretches away from the main body in a narrow headland, or peninsula, nearly two hundred miles in length, into the western sea, which is its common boundary, unless where it joins the extremes of the western and southern departments.

'The natural characters of its area are likewise singular. The midland and the western parts of it are chiefly composed of Slate-rock Hills, a species of country which is unknown in the rest of the kingdom, excepting a comparatively small district of its northern department, and excepting the insulated hills of Charnwood, which rise near its center! Indeed the surface, almost throughout the department (its north-eastern angle excepted) is of a singular cast; namely, tall, steep-sided hills, severed by narrow vallies, the hills being, in most instances, productive to their summits.

'Its agricultural distinguishments are not less remarkable. The Damnoian Husbandry is as foreign to the practice of the kingdom at large, as the lands on which it has been nurtured are to those of its other departments. See the Rural Economy of the West of England.'

We must do Mr. Marshall the justice to allow him to state his own views in this undertaking:

'The Transactions of the Royal Society have been abridged with valuable effect. The volume I am now offering, however, is not merely an abstract or abridgement of the Reports to the Board of Agriculture, or I should have published it as such. I have not only concentrated their valuable parts, but have pointed out, and I believe rectified their more dangerous errors, and may have thus rendered

my work useful to those who have, as well as to those who have not the Board's Reports.

' Should it be said that I have left many errors, if not absurdities, unnoticed, I would reply—every thing that I have left unnoticed is, I conceive, either erroneous or futile, and to practical men (especially those who are in possession of my former publications) of no consideration or avail.

' I have a further claim on the agricultural public : — I have not merely separated the better parts, from the confused masses in which I found them dispersed, but have, by appropriate arrangement (as being at once natural and practical) rendered them, I trust, intelligible at sight, and easily to be referred to; and have thus placed them in the most convenient form, not only for *perusal*, but for *study* and *reference*. For, by following each section of the general subject through the several Reports \*, (by the prefixed Table of Contents) the valuable information, relating to each individual topic, may be read with nearly equal facility, and with the self-same profit, as if the whole were re-cast and arranged systematically. And, allow me to add, the student, by this fresh reading, will inevitably, though perhaps imperceptibly, receive additional advantage from the information collected by the Board:

' Lastly, I will venture to prefer a claim on the public at large : — in having (as far as I have yet proceeded) unfolded a view (hitherto unnoticed) of the face of the country, as it relates to Territorial Concerns; and have thereby furnished an ample field of substantial natural facts, which cannot fail to become of the first utility, whenever the Government of this fair Isle may find it expedient to attend in some efficient way, to the amelioration of its own territory.'

Mr.M. having specified in the title of the first of these volumes the counties which he includes in the Northern Department, he commences by enumerating the *Natural Districts*, into which it subdivides itself; viz.

' The District of Wooller. The Seacoast of Northumberland. The Cheviot Hills. The "Moors" or Heathlands of this county. The Cultivated Uplands. The Valley or District of Hexham. The Seacoast of Durham. The Central District of Durham. The Morelands of the five counties. The District of Carlisle. The Seacoast of Cumberland. The Slate-stone Mountains of Cumberland, &c. The Valley of Appleby. The District of Kendal. The Cultivated Lands of Lancashire. The Morelands of Lancashire. Craven. The Western Morelands of Yorkshire. The Manufacturing Districts of Yorkshire. The Limestone Lands of West Yorkshire. The Vale of York. The Vale of Stockton. The Northern Seacoast of Yorkshire. The Eastern Morelands. The Limestone Lands of East Yorkshire. The Vale of Pickering. The Wolds

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\* In which the matter is very judiciously arranged under the three grand heads of Natural Economy, Political Economy, and Rural Economy, with their sectional subdivisions.

of Yorkshire. Holderness. The Southern Mountains of Lancashire, Yorkshire, Cheshire, Staffordshire, and Derbyshire.

‘ These districts, collectively, comprize the objects of the Board’s Surveyors, and form the subjects of the several Reports for the Northern Department, which are these :

‘ Northumberland, by Bailey and Culley. Durham, by Granger. Cumberland, by Bailey and Culley. Westmoreland, by Pringle. Lancashire, by Holt. West Yorkshire, by Brown, &c. North Yorkshire, by Tuke. East Yorkshire, by Leatham. Cheshire, by Wedge. Staffordshire, by Pitt. Derbyshire, by Brown.’

Of these Natural Districts, particular notice is taken in the course of this work. Previously, indeed, to the consideration of each county-report, the number of natural districts which it includes is enumerated ; and Mr. M., from his own notices and recollections, furnishes according to his own plan his own report. Having thus exemplified his qualifications for the task which he has undertaken, he regularly reviews the labours of the persons employed by the Board of Agriculture, and arranges the matter which they contain under the three heads of Natural, Political, and Rural Economy. As a proof of his alertness, he even criticizes verbal inaccuracies ; objecting to the improper use of the word *Economy*, and to the vulgar distinction of natural and *artificial* grasses. He thinks that *artificial grasses* should be classed with the Bond-street *artificial flowers* ; and he suggests the propriety of discriminating between the two kinds of grasses, by employing the terms *cultivated* and *uncultivated*.

As it is not the usual practice of Reviewers to draw their quills on each other, we shall abstain from minutely *examining* Mr. M.’s *examination* of the several county-reports which we have already enumerated ; deeming it sufficient to remark on this head that he has compressed with judgment, and that his observations are always intitled to consideration.

Respecting the mode adopted by him, Mr. M. very justly states that ‘ to resolve an extent of country into districts, with any degree of success, much time and travelling in the country are requisite, as well as maturity of study and examination ;’ and, being aware of his superior qualifications for such an object, and feeling himself hurt by measures which he conceives were directed against him, he asks, ‘ Allowing that the Board had no fit means, within themselves, — *in town*, to execute so difficult yet valuable an undertaking, could it be right, in a public institution, ostensibly set on foot to throw light on the rural science, to be instrumental in frustrating the endeavours of an individual, in performing so arduous a task ?’ — We shall not enter into the inquiry, how far

the surveys undertaken by order of the Board may be said to frustrate Mr. Marshall's endeavours. They were certainly conducted on different plans, and the contrast of them in the volumes before us will help to forward the knowledge of our country. From the substance of the Reports here exhibited, with strictures occasionally interwoven, we abstain from making any extracts: but it will be no improper compliment to our brother-critic to insert a specimen or two of his own preliminary surveys of the Natural Districts above mentioned, composing the Northern Département. At p. 159, the following description of the Mountains of Cumberland occurs;

' This extraordinary passage of the mountain department being "one and indivisible," and by much the largest portion of it lying within the county of Cumberland, I will offer, in this place, a sketch of the entire natural district, which forms a singular variety of British mountain.

' From every outward appearance, whether at the bases or the upper stages of these mountains, the ordinary materials of which they are formed is shistous, or slatey, rock; very similar to that of which the minor hills of Devonshire and Cornwall are constructed; as well as the minor mountains of South Wales. But there, especially in the former situation, scarcely any thing of rock appears: the hills, though steep, have generally a covering of soil; while the mountains of Cumberland vie with the granite rocks of the Grampian Hills, in ruggedness of surface; and with the calcareous mountains of North Wales, in picturesque effect.

' In the disposition of these mountains, we find nothing of regularity: no lengthened ridge, nor continuous chain of hills. The whole appears as a congeries of broken, and mostly pointed, masses—of immense bulk—whose bases are united, or nearly approach each other, unless where they are *superficially* divided by the lakes that are dispersed among them. Very little valley land is seen, except on the margins of the lakes, and excepting on the banks of the principal river,—the Derwent.

' The lower skirts, and the flatter parts of the hills are mostly covered with soil, resembling that of the Devonshire hills: the principal ingredient appearing to be decomposed slate stone.

' The Cumbrian, as the Cheviot, hills are green; excepting towards the summit of the higher mountains. Skiddaw, like "the Cheviot," is partially clothed in heath.

' The extent of this tract of mountain (in Cumberland, Westmoreland, and Lancashire) cannot be less, I conceive, than five or six hundred square miles, exclusively of the limestone heights, situated on the western bank of the valley of Appleby.'

Before we are invited to an examination of Mr. Tuke's General View of the Agriculture of the North Riding of Yorkshire, the reviewer places before us his own picture of the District termed *the Vale of York*:

' This

' This is the first of rivered vales in the island. The waters of the Swale and the Wiske pass down it, from its northern extreme, until they fall into the Humber, at its base, mixing in their way with the other waters of the county.

' It is situated mostly within the North Riding, but extends into the West and the East Ridings, toward its southern extreme. Its northern limit is given by the separation of the waters of raius, which fall between the Tees and the Swale and Wiske; where, owing to the levelness of the surface, in this part, a number of shallow meers, or lakelets, are seen, especially in a wet season; a circumstance that frequently occurs, where rain waters divide, and take contrary courses.—Its southern boundary is formed by the marshes of Yorkshire and Lincolnshire; the vale of York terminating with the vale lands. Its western limits have been mentioned to be the limestone lands of West Yorkshire, and the line of uplands that form the skirts of the western morelands.—The eastern boundary is less regular, but equally definite, being given by the morelands and limestone heights of East Yorkshire, and the wold hills.

' Its length, from north to south, is about sixty miles. Its width varies. Its medial breadth may be estimated at sixteen or seventeen miles, and its area, or entire contents, at more than one thousand square miles of valuable territory.

' The towns, situated in the area of the vale, are North Allerton, Thirsk, Borough Bridge, York, Cawood, Selby, Howden, Snaith, Thorn:—on its western margin—Richmond, Bedal, Ripon, Knaresborough, Wetherby, Tadcaster, Doncaster:—on its eastern—Easingwood, Pocklington, Weighton, Cave.

' The surface of this extraordinary tract of country is cast in the true vale style. It is sufficiently diversified to give richness and beauty to its appearance, without any thing of steepness, to interrupt the plough and sith, or any low flat lands that are liable to floods,—unless on the immediate banks of its rivers and brooks.

' Its soils are greatly varied. The upper parts of the vale are mostly occupied by cool strong lands, varying in colour and fertility, from pale cold clay, to rich red loam. Round Borough Bridge, lands of the very first quality, deep red loam on absorbent rock are found. On the margins, as near Ripon and Easingwood, passages of sandy lands of a fertile quality occur. And, in the eastern quarter of the vale, as well as in its more central parts, weak, sandy, heathlands occupy some considerable space. It is small, however, comparatively with the whole extent.'

Mr. Marshall has been induced to give this sketch, though he admits that Mr. Tuke's account is much fuller than his own.

Let us now betake ourselves to the *Western Department* of England, the distinguishing features of which have been already specified. It is added:

' This Department comprizes within its outlines,—part of *Lancashire* (the north side of the Vale of Warrington.)—parts of *Friarshire* and *Denbighshire*,—nearly the whole of *Cheshire*, *Shropshire*, *Hereford*.

*Herefordshire, Worcestershire, and Gloucestershire, — with parts of Wiltshire and Somersetshire.*

'The Reports which will require to be examined, as relating to this Department, are the following: namely,—Cheshire, by Wedge, also by Holland.—Flintshire and Denbighshire, by Kay.—Shropshire, by Bishton, also by Plymley.—Herefordshire, by Clark, also by Duncumb.—Worcestershire, by Pomeroy.—Gloucestershire, by Turner, also by Rudge.—Wiltshire, by Davis.—Somersetshire, by Billingsley.'

Here the Natural Districts are not stated as in the view of the Northern Department, independently of the political divisions by Counties: but at the head of the review of each county-report, the following notices present themselves.

'*Cheshire* includes the Natural Districts of the Vale of Warrington, the Valley of the Wyches\*, and the Vale of Chester, which latter extends within the counties of *Flint* and *Denbigh*.'

'*The Vale of Warrington* extends from the head of the estuary of the Mersey to near Manchester:—a distance of about twenty miles. Its width is irregular; as it spreads, on both sides, among the rising grounds which form its outlines. About Warrington, it is eight or ten miles in width; extending from near Newton, in Lancashire, to the gently rising grounds about Budworth in Cheshire; which form its natural division from the valley of the Wyches.

'Its *elevation* is inconsiderable, and its surface extraordinarily level. The Bridgewater canal passes from end to end of the vale without a lock, but is of course somewhat elevated above the river as its lower extremity.

'The soil, as far as my observations have gone, is principally of a rich sandy nature. Nevertheless, much cool strong land is observable: notwithstanding the prevailing substratum would seem to be soft, red sand rock.

'The whole appears to be in a state of mixed cultivation. Much Arable, as well as much perennial Herbage, is seen on both sides of the Vale.'

'*Shropshire* separates most reluctantly into natural districts.' The Vale of Shrewsbury is the only one that is enumerated; and Mr. M. considers it rather as a *mining* and *manufacturing*, than as an *agricultural* country.

'*Herefordshire*, like *Shropshire*, is without striking features to distinguish and separate it, into well determined natural districts. The Wye worms its course through the heart of Herefordshire, as does the Severn through Shropshire. But not in either of them do we find any thing of the nature of a rivered vale. Indeed, the whole of Herefordshire, its marginal heights excepted, is one wide district of vale lands,—studded with hills, hillocks, and minor swells,

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\* In the established pronunciation of the county, and its neighbourhood, the *y* in this appellation is pronounced long.<sup>a</sup>

of various heights and dimensions. The most natural division, and at the same time, the best agricultural distinction, is into *strong* and *light* lands.'—

'Herefordshire is almost exclusively, *agricultural*. There are neither mines, nor manufactures, of any considerable extent, in the county :—in this, particularly, varying from the county of Salop.

'My own knowledge of Herefordshire was chiefly atquired, in 1788, previously to my writing on the orchards and fruit liquors of that part of the kingdom;—when I took a general view of the county. I have, since that time, crossed it, incidentally, but with attention, in different directions ; and at different seasons.

'Before I enter upon a Review of the two Reports to the Board of Agriculture, from Herefordshire, it may be proper to notice the eastern side of Monmouthshire ;—which, though its inhabitants are, in language and manners, *Welsh* :—yet, in natural economy, and agricultural management, it may be deemed *English* :—and may, without disparagement to either county, be considered as a continuation of Herefordshire ;—and, as such, I intended to have comprized the Report of it, within the limits of my present work.

'But, on examining the only account of it, that has yet been printed by the Board, I find nothing to induce me to bring it forward, here :—not a line of it is fit, to be extracted !

'I will, therefore, only notice, in this place, that the district of Ragland, and the entire vale of Usk,—from Abergavenny to Newport,—rank, in richness and beauty, among the first passages of British territory.—The vale of Usk is, to South Wales, what that of Clywd, is to North Wales, and that of Montgomery to the midland parts of the principality.'

'*Worcestershire* is nearly, but not entirely one natural district, viz. the Vale of Worcester.'

'The Natural Districts of *Glostershire* are the Vale of Gloucester, over-Severn District, Vale of Berkely, and Forest of Dean.'

'The Cotswold Hills form the eastern boundary of the Vale of Gloucester ; rising from it with a steep front. The Stroudwater Hills, in like manner, bound the Vale of Berkeley : and the South Wolds, the Bristol quarter :—the three forming a line of calcareous heights, which reach from near Evesham, in Worcestershire, to near Bath, in Somersetshire.

'A skirt of low land, which lies at the south-east foot of the Cotswold Hills, is naturally a part of the Vale lands of North Wiltshire.'—

'Of Wiltshire, the principal part, namely the *Chalk Hills* and their vallies ; are not only in situation, but in soil and substrata, naturally a portion of the southern department of England ; they being, in nature, as well as in agricultural management, separable, or distinct from the vale lands, of *North Wiltshire* :—which, forming a link of the extended chain of vale lands that reach from the banks of the Mersey to those of the Somersetshire Avon, are naturally a district of the Western department.'

'*North*

'*North Somerset* partakes of Gloucestershire and Wiltshire, both in soils and agricultural management. It includes calcareous heights and vale lands. The dairy produce is similar to that of the rest of the Western Department. Even its cattle are of a kindred nature :—very different,—a distinct variety,—from those of South Somerset, and the other parts of the Southwestern Department.

'The natural line of separation is given by the marshes and sedgemores of the Brue and its branches ; which, now, doubtlessly occupy what was, heretofore, an estuary or arm of the sea, that more determinately separated those two natural districts from each other, and the Damnonian peninsula from the main land. Hence, not only the Mendip hills, but their southern skirts, form parts of the district under notice. The towns of Axbridge, Wells, and Shipton Mallet stand on its southern verge.

'North of this line, grass land produce is principally applied to the cheese dairy ; to the south of it, it is chiefly appropriated to grazing, or the butter dairy.'

To this volume, a table of Contents, *systematically arranged*, is prefixed ; and to each volume is added a very useful Index.

Though Mr. Marshall thinks that "he does well to be angry" with the Board of Agriculture, and investigates with some severity the qualifications of the Reporters employed by them, he does not suffer all opportunities of bestowing praise to escape him, but on occasion is very complimentary to his brother agriculturists. His abridgment and review need not supersede any future analysis and classification of the multifarious contents of the County-Surveys ; yet we sincerely hope that Mr. M. will be encouraged to complete his design.

#### ART. IV. *Dr. Gillies's History of the World.*

[Article concluded from p. 190.]

IN the former part of this article, in our Number for February, we suspended our examination of the History before us at the close of the 8th chapter, with a view of the Ptolemean period. The 9th chapter introduces us to the western Greeks, and to the reign of the ambitious and sanguinary Agathocles. Here it is observed by Dr. Gillies that 'the immediate successors of Alexander were distinguished in point of spirit and activity from the generation that came after them, and that their unceasing enterprise left scarcely any interval of repose, during which our attention might be directed to those nations celebrated in history, which fell not indeed within the limits of the Macedonian empire, but whose transactions derive connection and unity from those of the western Greeks, a commercial and seafaring, as well as an ambitious and warlike people.'

Had



Had the learned author confined his accounts to the Macedonian sovereignties, his work might have been rendered more perfect than it now is, and would have had more of unity than it can at present boast. The transactions of the Carthaginians and the western Greeks have scarcely any relation to kingdoms which sprang from the Macedonian empire ; while they are blended throughout with the affairs of Rome, and properly find a place in the history of that state. Though, however, we think that Dr. Gillies's plan would have been more simple, if he had omitted the accounts to which we are about to advert, we would by no means advise our readers to pass them over slightly. In the elaborate relation of Agathocles's incursions in Africa, the attention of students is directed to many facts and circumstances, which are either omitted or excite little notice in other narratives ; and it is rarely that they can follow the historian into any track into which he has chosen to wander, without being indebted to his industry for information, and to his reflections for instruction. That such is the fact will appear from the extracts which follow :

' About half a century before the commencement of her wars with Rome, from which æra she began uniformly to decline, Carthage was in the zenith of her greatness : possessing, besides innumerable colonies in all the western isles of the Mediterranean, and on several of its coasts, an undisturbed dominion over fifteen hundred miles of the African shore, from the confines of Cyrené to the pillars of Heroules ; and even beyond these ideal boundaries, her commercial settlements stretched five degrees to Cerné on the ocean nearly opposite to the Canaries, then dignified by the name of the Fortunate Isles. But the nature, rather than the extent of this territory, rendered it important in four essential articles of national prosperity ; agriculture, commerce, arts, and arms.

' The Carthaginians settled on a coast, which anciently as well as in modern times justly deserved the name of Barbary. This savage country they gained not as conquerors, but purchased lands from the natives, on the condition of yearly rents, which seem to have been faithfully paid to the time of Darius Hystaspes. When they felt their own strength, they withheld these contributions, but compensated for this irregularity by exerting themselves in the civilization of their wild and wandering neighbours ; by teaching them to live in houses, to exercise agriculture, and to relish the security and the sweets of a settled and peaceful life. The country stretching directly southward from the bay of Carthage to Lake Triton and the desert, opened a wide and alluring field to the labour of the husbandman. It exceeded two hundred miles in length, from north to south, and for the most part extended one hundred and fifty miles in breadth. Its northern division was called Zeugitana ; its southern, comprehended within the circumference of two hundred and forty miles,

miles, first received the name of Byzatium, and afterwards that of *Emporia*, because the towns in that district became the principal staples for the interior trade of Africa. To this favoured tract the Carthaginians, as their maritime capital grew inconveniently populous, or their citizens restless and turbulent, were continually sending new colonies; which, mixing with the rude natives under the common name of Libyphœnices, skillfully cultivated the ground, and gradually reduced the whole region under a willing obedience to Carthage. The territories of Zeugitana and Byzatium soon began, and long continued to afford a copious source of public abundance as well as private opulence. In those provinces chiefly the Hannos, the Barcas, and the Magos possessed such extensive and valuable estates as seemed to raise them above the condition of subjects or citizens: the commonwealth of Carthage supplied its public granaries from the same territories; and by imposing on them an annual tribute in grain, was enabled to provide large magazines, and to maintain great armies. To the eastward of the Libyphœnicians, the Syrtic region, now composing the barbarous and piratical kingdom of Tripoli, extended above five hundred miles along a sandy plain scantily watered by small rivulets, near to some of which the Carthaginians had erected a few feeble and scattered colonies. The western division of this large tract of country, generally unfit for agriculture, was inhabited by the obscure tribes of the Ausenses and Machlycs, and the more famous Lotophagi, so named from the Lotus, (the *Rhamnus Lotus* of Linnæus), the fruit of which served the double purpose of corn and of wine. The Lotophagi were masters of the island of Meninx, and held possession of the adjacent coast as far eastward as Leptis Magna, the modern Tripoli. The rest of the Syrtic region to the confines of Cyrenè, and the immortal monuments of the Philœnian brothers, was divided among the wandering tribes of the Macæ, Paylli, Nasamones, and Garamantes, shepherds and merchants, who, besides paying many of them at least a tribute to Carthage, put that republic in exclusive possession of a commerce which now enriches many states of Barbary. This trade was carried on anciently, as it is at present, by caravans; and by the exchange of salt for slaves, of dates for cattle, above all, of trinkets for gold; which appears to have been the magnet that attracted the northern Africans through the desert to the countries abounding in that precious metal. But this lucrative trade, of which, as above mentioned, the cities of Byzatium were the staples, formed only the eastern and least important link of the chain. The western was far more extensive, stretching along the coast of Barbary, and even that of Morocco, as far as Cerné and the Canary Isles. The greater part of this vast and now dreary space was brightened by the Metagonite cities or fortresses, which, whatever may be the origin of their name, appear to have been founded by the Carthaginians for maintaining their communication, not only with the inland countries in that division of Africa, but with the negroes on the gold coast, and with the rich Phœnician colonies of Gades and Tartessus.

The advantages, which had been derived from the fostering hand of commerce, are evident from the picture given of the country

country which first experienced the ravages of the Sicilian adventurer. Having made good his landing on the Liby-Phœnician Coast, Agathocles set fire to his galleys, that he might inspire his men with a desperate ardour for conquest, and that the ships might not fall into the hands of the enemy. After this act, says Dr. G.

‘ Careful not to allow time for the sensations of his men to vibrate from enthusiasm to despondency, he led them to *Megalopolis*, the great city, through a country smiling with the fairest gifts of long undisturbed industry. The land was on all sides intersected by canals, whose banks were adorned by flourishing plantations or flowery gardens. Amidst scenes of elegance and beauty, the vine and olive claimed admission, on account of their indispensable utility. The opulence of the inhabitants was strongly displayed in the elegant embellishment of their rural mansions, and in the well replenished storehouses with which they were surrounded. Troops of young horses sported in irriguous meadows ; while the adjoining lawns teemed with herds of sheep and oxen. Throughout the whole prospect, exuberant nature was improved by skilful art, for many of the principal families of Carthage inhabited this district, and vied with each other in cultivating and adorning it.’

Our historian thus sketches the constitution of this famed republic, which was so long the rival of Rome :

‘ The lamentable changes, which had gradually taken place in the ancient and well balanced aristocracy of Carthage, it is here necessary to describe, that we may understand the grounds and motives of Bomilcar’s conspiracy, the best key to the subsequent history of his country. The chief magistrates of Carthage, called Suffetes, are compared by Aristotle with the kings of Sparta ; which indicates a longer duration of office than that of Athenian Archons, or Roman Consuls. The members of the Carthaginian senate were, as well as the Suffetes, appointed with a due regard to merit and wealth. When the Suffetes and senate were of the same mind, they exercised without controul both the legislative and executive powers of government. When they differed in opinion, an assembly of the people was summoned to decide between them. The people, in their national assembly, also named the naval and military commanders ; whose functions appear to have been seldom conjoined with any of the principal branches of civil power. The Suffetes, who alternately presided in the senate or assembly, are sometimes, by the Greek writers, called kings ; and the same title is not unfrequently bestowed on those Carthaginian commanders, who were entrusted with the conduct of great armies, and of long or important wars. The government of Carthage, however, was very remote from royalty ; it was equally remote from democracy ; it was strictly aristocratical : and the vigour of the aristocracy resided in two tribunals, which bear a near analogy to the council of ten, and the court of state inquisitors, in the late republic of Venice, naval and commercial like Carthage, and once not less jealous of its constitution. To the *Pentarchy*, or council

council of five, and the *Centumvirate*, or council of a hundred and four, the lives, and fortunes, and honours, of every individual in the community were subjected without appeal. The pentarchy elected its own members, and also filled up the vacancies that had happened in the centumvirate. These two councils, thus permanent and immortal, not only formed the supreme judicature in all causes public and private, civil and criminal, but exercised a censorial and inquisitorial authority, for the purpose of watching over the safety of the government, and anticipating public delinquency. In the earlier and purer times of the commonwealth, these exorbitant powers should appear to have been seldom very shamefully abused. But the diffusion of wealth and luxury engendered turbulence in the people and faction among the great. The principal offices, both civil and military, became scandalously venal. Rapacity is the inseparable companion of bribery; and a people that may be bought, are not far removed from a people that may be enslaved. To prevent or punish these growing evils gave new activity to the pentarchy and centumvirate; which, in their endeavours to repress the criminality of others, became themselves highly criminal; unjust judges, false accusers, and malignant inquisitors; raging with an excess of cruelty against offences merely suspected on the report of infamous spies; and punishing with equal severity the virtues which they envied, and the abilities which they feared.

After he has concluded the episodes to which we have referred, the author again resumes the immediate subject of his labours; and the 10th chapter brings us to the disorders which ensued on the death of Seleucus, the last survivor of the Generals of Alexander.

‘Antiochus, the son and successor of Seleucus, had in his father’s life-time reigned over a wide expanse of Upper Asia, then bridled by garrisons, enriched by marts of inland traffick, adorned in many places by Grecian arts and edifices, and confirmed in peaceful allegiance under its Macedonian masters. Besides Syria, which he inherited, the huge square previously resigned to him, touching on its four sides the Euphrates and Indus, the Arabian gulph and the Caspian, was computed two centuries ago, to contain, under the general name of Persia, above five hundred cities, sixty thousand villages, and forty millions of inhabitants. If such indeed was its population, after a long succession of barbarous dynasties, how much more flourishing must it have been, when, through the arrangements of Alexander, the Scythians and Arabs, those desolating Nomadic conquerors, were kept at a distance, and confined within their native deserts? But as if the passive submission of such dominions had diminished their magnitude or importance, Antiochus was in haste to claim Macedon, in virtue of the last victory of his father. In his progress westward, he had to encounter the Bithyrians, and other rebels in Lesser Asia. The opposition which he found in that quarter, and which he was unable to overcome, made him transfer his court and army from the neighbourhood of the Tigris, to that of the Orontes. Instead of Seleucia Babylonia, Antioch was chosen for his residence, agreeably to

to a policy not unusual, of fixing the capital of empires near that frontier where most danger is apprehended. In the last twenty years of Seleucus, the natural advantages of Syria had been improved with the industry of art, and the zeal of affection; for the valley of the Orontes, extending ten days' journey from Antioch to Damascus, the snowy mountains from which it was refreshed, the lakes and rivers by which it was watered, revived, in the fancy of the Macedonians, the beloved image of their native country. This northern division of Syria was divided into districts, distinguished by Macedonian names, and adorned by Antioch, Laodiceæ, Seleucia, and Pella; the last of which cities was afterwards called Apamea. The pastures of Syrian Pella exceeded in extent and fertility those of Pella in Macedon, and served under the successor of Seleucus, to feed five hundred elephants, thirty thousand brood mares, and three hundred stallions. The place was crowded by soldiers, grooms, riding-masters, and their pupils, and entirely dedicated to arms and exercises; while productive and commercial industry enriched the greater cities in its neighbourhood. Oppressed by the military despotism of the Mamelukes, Syria in the fourteenth century is said to have contained sixty thousand villages; a vague estimate, yet serving to evince the resources of that country under a wiser and milder administration.

'Egypt, by its detached situation, and the diligence of the first Ptolemy in fortifying it, was placed beyond the reach of the Gallic broad sword. At the age of eighty four, that able prince left his son Philadelphus, whom he had previously associated in power, sole master of Egypt and its dependencies in Cyrenè and Cyprus. This second Ptolemy had now reigned four years, at peace abroad, firm in his government at home, and zealous to complete the great designs of his father with regard to every important branch, either of domestic or foreign policy.'

It was not till some time later that Antigonus Gonatas, the son of Demetrius and the grandson of Antipater, was able to establish himself in Macedonia.

Of the Gauls, who at this epoch overran the civilized world, and committed such dreadful havoc in several states, the author gives this account;

'The spacious square, called Galatia, or Gallia, by the ancients, was comprehended, in one direction, between the English channel and the Mediterranean; and in another, between the Bay of Biscay and the Rhine. Its two southern corners were fortified by the natural bulwarks of the Alps and Pyrenees. This ample and compact territory was, in all ages, distinguished by the roving inconsistency and martial enterprise of the Galatians, Gauls, or Celts, its immortal inhabitants.'

'The inhabitants of Gaul, like those of Britain, Spain, and Germany, subsisted in that middle state of barbarism, which though elevated above the penury and gloom of savage life, was still further removed from the dignity and elegance of enlightened commonwealths. Their uncouth appearance, tumultuary governments,

ferocious

ferocious manners, and abominable superstitions, which made historians hesitate whether the Gauls had not a natural unfitness for civilization, were accompanied, however, with such knowledge in the arts appertaining to war and agriculture, as usually denote a considerable degree of improvement in society. The use of iron and copper was familiar in their instruments or implements; the ore collected from the foaming torrents of their rivers was smelted into gold for the ornaments of both sexes; their houses, though formed wholly of wood, were so firmly constructed as to repel the inclemencies of a northern sky; and they had provided useful animals in such abundance, that the flower of their military force consisted in cavalry! In this last particular, they agreed with the Germans, with whom, in all other respects, those tribes of the Gauls, at least, who invaded the Macedonian empire, should seem to have had much affinity. Their complexions, like those of the Germans, were fair; their long hair was for the most part red, which colour both nations heightened by art; and the Gauls as well as Germans were dreadfully distinguished by gigantic stature and unbridled ferocity. In their military expeditions, each Gallic horseman was accompanied by two retainers, also mounted; one of whom assisted his master when unhorsed or wounded, and the other instantly succeeded to his place in the ranks.'

The effects of this barbarian corruption are thus stated by the author, at the commencement of chapter xi.

'The conquests, made by the Gauls, corresponded not to the vastness of their numbers. Their invasion, however, left an extensive and lasting impression on the empire, besides separating from it the two important provinces of Thrace and Galatia. Their ravages so much weakened Macedon, that Antigonus Gonatas, with the aid of his Peloponnesian subjects, found little difficulty in remounting the throne of his father Demetrius. The first successors of Seleucus were prevented chiefly through the Gauls from recovering their lost authority in Lesser Asia; while the disorders which these Barbarians caused or abetted in all other parts of the empire gave a degree of relative importance to Egypt, to which that country, truly valuable in itself, could not naturally have laid claim, but which it accidentally acquired while standing aloof from danger, and collecting the wealth, populousness, and industry of surrounding nations.'

Having noticed the situation of the other two kingdoms, which arose out of Alexander's conquests under the second race of his successors, we shall now advert to that of Macedon under Antigonus Gonatas.

'Antigonus took no part in the affairs of Egypt and Syria, the two great rival powers in the empire. He formed for himself a system apart, in the conducting of which Philip, father of Alexander, appears to have been his model. - But he wanted the splendid abilities of that elegant as well as politic prince, and even exceeded him in the vileness of those corrupt artifices which constituted the opprobrious part in Philip's character. The great object of his reign

reign was to recover the Macedonian dominion over the divided republics of Greece, several of which he still held by his garrisons, and a still greater number by his profligate partizans among their own citizens. This undertaking was carried on by arms and intrigues, with unwearied attention and unabating activity ; and as like temptations engender similar crimes, the struggle of Antigonus against the free cities of Greece will remind us of the execrable proceedings of the modern tyrants in Italy, whose purposes were attained by address rather than force ; and of whose dark and crooked policy, assassination, perfidy, and poison were the ordinary and most successful instruments. For many years the schemes of Antigonus advanced with an unremitted tide of good fortune. In Peloponnesus, Sparta and Argos acknowledged his supremacy ; and of the great cities beyond the Isthmus, Thebes was completely humbled ; and Athens taken and garrisoned, notwithstanding the aid of a considerable fleet belonging to Ptolemy Philadelphus.

The important feature which the Achæan league forms in this history renders it proper that we should copy the author's account of its origin :

‘ The first symptoms of steady opposition to the usurpations of Macedon appeared in the small cities of Achaia, a poor inhospitable district, sixty miles long, and twenty broad, extending along the Corinthian gulph, whose rocky shores, beat by the foaming surge, formed the terror of Grecian mariners. To a few of those cities, which, in expelling their Macedonian garrisons, had associated for common defence, Alexander, the instrument of Antigonus’ dominion in Corinth, offended by some act of severity in his master, had added that important emporium, and rendered its commanding citadel, which Philip regarded as the shackles of Peloponnesus, the bulwark of that peninsula. The defection of Alexander was punished by a cup of poison ; but this crime proved not immediately useful to Antigonus, since Nicæa, widow to the deceased, assumed the government of Corinth, and administered it with the firm virtues of the other sex, although she was soon to be disgraced and ruined by the silliest weaknesses of her own. Antigonus being apprised of her character, instead of submitting to the tedious formalities of a siege, sent to Corinth his son Demetrius, who inherited with the name, the fair external accomplishments of his grandfather Poliorcetes. The courtship of this young prince was not to be resisted by an amorous old woman like Nicæa ; who, in giving away herself, fondly and absurdly hoped to retain her power : for, amidst the joys of the nuptial festivity, Antigonus surprised and gained the Corinthian citadel, after which event, Nicæa, abandoned by her lover, was left to lament in solitude over the bitter fruits of her credulity, while the contriver of the delusion gave way, it is said, to such excesses of drunken levity, as seemed to indicate that the taking of Corinth had taken away his own understanding.’

Antigonus, the successor of Seleucus in the kingdom of Syria, and who illustrated the early part of his reign by a

signal victory over the Gauls, was unsuccessful in his wars with Egypt, and at a later period was defeated and slain in battle by the same Gauls. He was succeeded by Antiochus, surnamed Theos, who died by poison, and in whose reign Parthia and Bactria revolted. Ptolemy Philadelphus was the cotemporary of both those monarchs.—Dr. Gillies then points out the sources whence he has drawn the details of this prince's marvellous prosperity, and assigns the causes to which it is to be ascribed :

‘ If we credit the general testimony of antiquity, Egypt, during his long and enlightened reign attained a degree of wealth and splendour unexampled in any kingdom before or afterwards. To avoid confusion in this copious subject, I shall first briefly state the wonderful reports delivered down to us. I shall then endeavour to bring together the circumstances hinted at, rather than explained, from which Ptolemy's real prosperity flowed.

‘ The first testimony to be adduced is that of a poet, contemporary with Ptolemy, and writing in the learned capital of that prince. Theocritus will tell us that, in his own happy age, Egypt was governed by equal laws, defended by invincible armies, and at once the best cultivated, and the most commercial kingdom on earth ; that the sway of his King and patron extended over more than thirty thousand cities or towns, flourishing in useful arts ; that his fleets, on the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, carried on a most extensive traffic ; and that a country, which had long languished under the barbarous yoke of Persia in the humiliation of a province, again resumed more than her pristine splendour, exercising a legitimate, because useful dominion over the islands of Greece, the seaports of Asia, and even the out lying and almost inaccessible regions of Libya, Arabia, and Ethiopia. For the dazzling rays of poetry and panegyric, should we desire to substitute the more sober light of history, we must have recourse to Appian, a native of Alexandria, who governed Egypt early in the first century after Christ. Appian is an historian eminent for fidelity ; he was master of the archives of Egypt, to which he appeals as his authority ; and he could have no reasonable motive for exaggerating the wealth and power of a country over which he was præfect, and for the employment and improvement of whose resources, he was accountable to his masters Trajan and Hadrian, the Roman emperors. According to Appian, Philadelphus' army consisted of two hundred thousand foot, forty thousand horse, three hundred elephants, and two thousand armed chariots. His arsenals were copiously stored with all sorts of military engines, and with armour for three hundred thousand men, in addition to those which he actually had on foot. His navy was not less magnificent, consisting of a hundred and twelve ships of an uncommon size, from galleys of five to others of thirty-five tier of oars : his trireme and quadrireme galleys amounted to fifteen hundred ; he had two thousand armed vessels of a smaller size ; above four thousand Egyptian merchantmen navigated the Mediterranean ; and the Nile



united Greece and a watchful observer of foreign powers, Philip may seize opportunities for successful enterprize, that will place him in a rank with the most illustrious princes in his family; conquerors and civilisers of the world. Let us then hasten to conclude a lasting peace in the sincere spirit of amity; for, if we continue to grow weaker by unceasing divisions, and the storm which threatens in the west should assail us unprepared, I much fear there will be an end at once to our wars and our treaties, and all independent power in the management of our own affairs."

Dr. Gillies has now brought down the affairs of the Macedonian potentates to the period in which the ascendancy of Rome commences, and is therefore henceforwards seen on a beaten track. If he occupies himself too much with this haughty republic, and too slightly passes over the affairs of the Greek kingdoms, his details are derived immediately from the original writers themselves, and retain much of their spirit and fervour. He surveys objects with his own eyes, and his remarks generally indicate discrimination and judgment. The cautious policy, the subtle wiles, and the insatiable lust of domination, which characterize this towering state, are correctly appreciated, and strongly depicted. It is certainly not among the least of the merits of Dr. Gillies, that he seems constantly to bear in mind the ends and design of history, and the practical benefits at which it ought to aim; a commendation of which the justness will be felt by those who attentively peruse his accounts of the internal revolutions of Rome, and of the successive changes in her manners, as well as in her maxims of domestic and foreign administration. The struggles and intrigues of parties are dispassionately narrated and luminously developed; characters are fairly and ably judged; and events are traced to their causes and pursued to their consequences. To support this character of the remaining part of the work before us, it would be easy to select extracts: but the length to which this article has already extended forbids such illustration,

Of the arrangement of this very valuable performance, we have already expressed our sentiments; and we still conceive it to be susceptible of considerable improvement in this respect. The style has not uniform claims to grace and elegance: but it is generally perspicuous, manly, and forcible; though occasionally turgid, and often requiring the polish which an accurate and sedulous attention to the niceties of construction would have imparted to it.—In conclusion, we must remark that, if a less extended range and a severer exertion of *finishing* would have rendered these pages more consummate and more alluring, yet candid and competent judges, who are aware of the difficulties which belong to undertakings of this nature, will commend the research, the impartiality, and the judgment,

which are here displayed ; qualities which endow these volumes with strong claims to the support and warm acknowledgements of the public. If the author founds his hopes of reputation and applause on the suffrage of persons with whom reading is a mere pastime, it is here, we apprehend, that he will find them principally unsuccessful : but the assiduous student, who, while he peruses this work, consults also original authorities, will duly appreciate the competence, estimate the labour, and applaud the fidelity of his guide.

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ART. V. *Lyric Airs* ; consisting of Specimens of Greek, Albanian, Walachian, Turkish, Arabian, Persian, Chinese, and Moonish National Songs and Melodies ; being the first Selection of the kind ever yet offered to the Public. To which are added, Basses for the Harp and Piano-Forte. Likewise are subjoined, a few explanatory Notes on the Figures and Movements of the modern Greek Dances, with a short Dissertation on the Origin of the ancient Greek Music. By Edward Jones, Bard to His R. H. the Prince of Wales. Folio. 15s. Boards. Robinsons, &c.

IT is related of Earl Marshall, that, though not deeply versed in Music, he was a most industrious collector of National Melodies from all countries, and possessed an immense assortment. A taste of this kind is gratifying to the musical amateur, and is at the same time agreeable to the philosophic inquirer. We naturally wish to know in what mode the varied tribes and nations of the earth have obtained pleasure from this great medium of delight ; and we are probably not deceived when we suppose that the music of nations furnishes no inadequate key to their general state of improvement. When we hear, in the islands of the south sea, an air consisting of three bars, and made up of ill assorted notes, of a modulation scarcely to be defined, and observe the inhabitants to be highly gratified with this brief and motley piece of composition, we may safely pronounce that they are in a state of extreme rudeness : when we listen to a regular melody of some length, with a second part corresponding in measure to the first, and bearing the same character, like the melting and pathetic airs of the Scots, we are safe in ascribing to the people, among whom such music exists, a material improvement in the arts of life :—but, when we hear specimens of considerable extent, as in the music of Italy, where a rich harmony gives effect to an interesting melody, where light and shade are artfully interwoven, and where a natural and highly varied modulation addresses, without ever producing lassitude, the fancy of the hearer, we may on good grounds suppose that among those who relish this species

Nile gloried in the pompous weight of eight hundred resplendent barges, adorned with idols of gold on their prows and sterns. The naval magazines of Ptolemy were still better stored than the military; since in the former he had every thing necessary for the equipment of double the number of gallees actually fitted out. Yet those mighty fleets and armies did not exhaust his more stupendous treasury: which, at the time of his death, amounted to seven hundred and forty thousand Egyptian talents, exceeding in value a hundred and ninety millions sterling; a sum, of which not indeed modern accumulation, but modern profusion only, can help us to form a notion. In the zenith of Roman greatness, the magnificence of the second Ptolemy still continued proverbial, and the epithet of Philadelphian was employed to characterise those works pre-eminent in preciousness of material, or in nobleness of design.

As the primary cause of the flourishing state of Egypt at this period, the author mentions the unrivalled superiority of its fleets:

‘ This advantage (he says,) was heightened by the acquisition of Cilicia, Lycia, Caria, in a word, the whole southern coast of Lesser Asia, in addition to Coele-Syria, Phœnicia, and the isle of Cyprus, which had been long appendages to Egypt. Without taking into the account Cyrenè, the Cyclades, and the sea ports on the coast of Thrace, we know from the description formerly given of all those countries, that their timber and iron, their harbours and sailors, contained the materials of a vast naval force; which we shall see presently were improved by the Ptolemies, with equal activity and judgement. But while the conquests of these princes supplied them with this great instrument of opulence and power, the unceasing wars in Greece, the ravages of the Gauls in Lower Asia, and the tumults excited by the Parthians, in the upper provinces, continually brought new accessions of industrious and peaceful subjects to Egypt; in which country alone, men enjoyed complete security, fearing no enemies from abroad, and being governed at home justly and mildly. To these advantages, the magnitude of which it is not easy to limit, Ptolemy added a benefit accruing from the peculiar habits and character of his Egyptian subjects, who, notwithstanding many pernicious prejudices, which he was careful to correct or soften, had appeared from the earliest times, an ingenious and courteous people, of great temperance and sobriety, capable of unwearied application to the useful arts, and abundantly supplying by their agriculture and manufactures, the necessities and accommodations of themselves and neighbours.

‘ To the southern neighbours of Egypt, the Arabians and Ethiopians, Ptolemy directed the most vigilant attention. Those nations, as we have seen, had immemorially traded with India for spice; and were themselves peculiarly rich, Arabia in perfumes, Ethiopia in gold. By his admiral, Timotheus the Rhodian, Ptolemy early navigated the Red Sea, examined the harbours of Adel, beyond the straits of Babelmandeb, and explored the coast of Africa to Ophir, or Sofala, the land of gold, opposite to the coast of

**Madagascar.** The boldness of such an undertaking will not allow us to suppose that he neglected treasures more within his reach. Ethiopia above Egypt united the greatest wealth with the greatest wretchedness, and comprehended a variety of nations, with peculiarities so discordant, that according to an ancient writer, the true description of any one people must have appeared incredible, not only to remote strangers, but to its immediate neighbours. The singular view of these contrasting nations was opened to the curiosity of the Greeks in the reign of the two first Ptolemies, particularly Philadelphus, who founded a city near the Red Sea, called Ptolemais Feraum, nearly as far to the south of Syene, the extremity of Egypt, as Syene itself is distant from the mouths of the Nile. The purpose of this settlement, it is said, was to hunt the elephant, and to catch him alive for the service of war, and the pomp of processions. But this design was at first opposed by the natives, worthy ancestors of the modern Shangalla, who delighted in hamstringing this huge and innocent tenant of their plains, in dissecting his brawny members, and in greedily devouring his live flesh; a kind of food to them so delicious that they assured Ptolemy, they would not barter its enjoyment for all the treasures of Egypt. The King, however, partly succeeded in reforming this horrid usage of those woolly-headed Barbarians, as appears from the vast number of elephants which he drew from their country.

In the intermediate space of about four hundred miles between Syene and the hunting seat for wild beasts, Ptolemy among many other cities built Berenice, distinguished by the epithet of "golden" from other places named after his beloved mother. The neighbourhood of this southern Berenice contained rich mines of gold, which had been wrought with much profit by the ancient Egyptian kings, but in which all labour had been suspended during the desolating dominion of the Persians. In these mines the Greeks still found copper tools of old employed by the original workmen, but substituted, in their stead, more efficacious tools of iron. A description of their operations is given under the sixth Ptolemy, entitled Philometor, when the mines perhaps were much exhausted, and when the painful labour was confined to criminals or slaves. Their produce, it may be presumed, was in former reigns much greater, and particularly when they were managed by the agents of Philadelphus, who, as of all men he had the most liberality and taste in employing wealth, is said also to have been of all the most skilful and most fortunate in acquiring it.

There is historical evidence that Ptolemy traded directly to India, though this trade was carried on by a small number of vessels. Such however as it was, it prevented the monopoly which might otherwise have been enjoyed by the Sabæans in the great articles of spices and perfumes. By his ships on the Red Sea, Ptolemy carried on a lucrative commerce with Yemen and Adel, respectively the finest districts in Arabia and Ethiopia; and the traffic of pepper, aromatics, pearls, and gold, whose caravans anciently raised the stupendous inland capitals of Thebes and Memphis, now enriched by numerous fleets the maritime emporium of Alexandria. By his judicious arrangements

rangements in this city, and the help of his subservient allies in Rhodes, Ptolemy introduced an easier communication than had formerly subsisted between the east and west; and, by commanding the Mediterranean on one side, and the Red Sea on the other, finished, as it were, two arms of the vast commercial colossus which Alexander had rough-hewn or projected, and which, had that conqueror lived a few years longer, he would have reared entire, to the unspeakable benefit of posterity.'

It would be very pleasing to us, if our space allowed, to follow the historian in his interesting and very learned account of the literature of Egypt under Philadelphus: but we can only remark that he interrupts his narrative, we think, improperly, in order to introduce a long digression on the origin, early struggles, and rising fortunes of Rome. Passing over this episode, which forms the xiith chapter, and terminates the first volume, we approach to the transactions of the third generation of Alexander's successors; which occupy a period of thirty-three years, namely, from the death of Ptolemy Philadelphus to the first hostilities between the Romans and Philip IV. of Macedon.

Syria and Egypt, engaged during this epoch in fruitless wars, present little that is worthy of notice; while the moderate and wise government of Antigonus Doson in Macedonia, the transactions of the Achæan league, the affairs of Greece, the singular revolutions of Sparta, and the rapacious warfare of the Etolians, form inviting and attractive subjects. They consequently excite very powerfully the attention of the historian, and render his pages in this part of his work equally interesting and instructive.

In commencing his narrative of the events which belong to the next period, (chap. xiv.) Dr. G. observes that

'During a full century after the death of Alexander, the three first successions of his Generals enjoyed either an absolute jurisdiction, or a controuling predominancy over all those countries of the East, that fall within the sphere of ancient history. But in the fourth generation, the Greeks and Macedonians began to be precipitated from the supreme rank which they had long held among nations. This revolution, originating in domestic disorders, was accelerated by the impulse of a great foreign power, whose springs had recently been wound up in Italy, and which, after bursting that barrier, to lay prostrate Carthage and Sicily, assailed in succession the rich countries of the East with accumulating force, and most decisive effect. Immediately before this Roman warfare, the thrones of Syria and Macedon devolved respectively on Antiochus III. and Philip IV. both of them minors; and, at the same time, Egypt was subjected to the worse than puerile follies of Ptolemy IV., surnamed Philopator. From such principal actors a very perturbed scene was to be expected. Greece, which had been united in peace-

ful tranquillity under the mild yet firm policy of Antigonus Doseus, again exhausted its unhappy valour in what is called the social war. The throne of the young king of Syria was shaken by revolt in his provinces, and by discord in his family. Notwithstanding this unsoundness within, Antiochus was tempted by the mad cruelty of Ptolemy Philopator, which rendered him odious to his subjects, to make war on that profligate tyrant. From these general convulsions, many partial disorders flowed; and the empire was weakened by deep internal wounds, when the evil destiny of Philip and Antiochus involved them successively in hostilities with Rome.

The intrigues of the Court of Antioch under Antiochus III., and the busy scenes and exploits of the commencement of his reign, are then related circumstantially, in a manner which strongly arrests attention.

The respective administrations of the Greek kingdoms much more resemble modern governments, than any of those which are described in what are called Grecian or Roman histories; a consideration which has had no slight weight in making us regret that the author did not confine his researches and labours solely to the affairs of those sovereignties, without incorporating with them (as he has done) the well-known and multifarious transactions of Rome.

Chap. xv.—Having described the flourishing state in which Antigonus Doseus had transmitted Macedon to his successor Philip IV., Dr. G. gives an account, which is distinguished by his usual accuracy, of the social war which ended in the reduction of the Etolians; who then gladly submitted to the hard conditions of peace which were imposed on them by Philip and the Achæans. The negotiation of this treaty has been rendered memorable by the prophetic speech which Agelaus the Etolian leader introduced in the course of it, and which met the approbation of all present, but especially of King Philip:

“It were most earnestly to be wished, (said Agelaus,) that the Greeks had always kept peace amongst themselves, and directed their hostilities against surrounding Barbarians. But that which would have been good policy at all times, is in the present juncture a matter of necessity. Consider the great and ambitious powers that have arisen in the west, and the vast exertions which they have been able to make by sea and land. They are actually engaged in a second and more desperate conflict; and whichever party prevails, think not that the victor will be contented with the spoils of his present adversary. He will look around him for new enemies, that may furnish him with materials for richer and more glorious triumphs. Instead of reducing to weakness and despondency any of the states of Greece, a king of Macedon ought to cherish them all, as members of his own body. The strength, resulting from such concord, will probably prevent aggression; if not, cordial co-operation will most certainly enable us to repel it. Placed at the head of united

anecdote, which he considered as in any way suitable, he put it down on a slip of paper and thrust it into the appropriate bag : he went on for years inventing, and collecting, and stuffing, in this manner : when the bag was full, he emptied it on the table ; spread out like so much Mosaic work his various slips of paper ; and pen and ink being at hand, and matter abundant, he wrote his Dissertation without difficulty. Mr. Jones seems to have followed some such method : much is here collected and nothing arranged ; much is hinted-at, but nothing discussed. His short Dissertation is a large book of knowledge. *Inter alia*, we have in it a rule for drinking, viz. three cups and no more ; one for health, a second for cheerfulness, and a third for sleep. We have also a detail of most ingenious stratagems in war ; many lessons of wisdom from Thales the Milesian ; and a collection of the Epigrams of Theocritus.—These are good things, and the author was resolved that they should not be lost. There are other things, no doubt, that are appropriate, which bear more (though, it must be confessed, very generally,) on the subject.

We conclude with a remarkable remnant of antiquity quoted in this Dissertation : viz. a Lacedemonian decree against musical innovation, fortunately still preserved, in the chaste and severe style of the Spartans ; at which, amid our rage for novelties, many will assuredly smile, and call it *State-Methodism*,—not considering, with the wise Spartans, its value as a receipt for the support and stability of kingdoms :

“Whereas Timotheus, the Milesian, coming to our city, has deformed the majesty of our antient music, and despising the lyre of 7 strings has, by the introduction of a multiplicity of notes, corrupted the ears of our youth ; and by the number of his strings, and the strangeness of his melody, has given to our music an effeminate and artificial dress, instead of the plain and orderly one in which it has hitherto appeared ; rendering melody infamous, by composing in the Chromatic, instead of the Euharmonic :—The Kings, and the Ephori have therefore resolved to pass censure upon *Timotheus* for those things : and farther, to oblige him to cut off all the superfluous strings of his *eleven*, leaving only the *seven thereon* ; and to banish him from our dominion ; that men may be warned for the future, not to introduce into Sparta any unbecoming customs.”

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ART. VI. *An Introduction to the Study of Moral Evidence ; or of that Species of Reasoning which relates to Matters of Fact and Practice.* By J. Ed. Gambier, M. A. Rector of Langley, Kent. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

A DEFICIENCY doubtless prevails in that department of literature, which has for its object the training of the mind to judge

judge correctly of moral evidence: yet no instruction can be conceived which is more important than this would be, in guiding the actions of life, and regulating our opinions on the most interesting points. It is from the want of this instruction, or from not profiting by it as it is given, that under the guise of wisdom so much folly is uttered, that under the form of eloquence so much inanity solicits our applause, and that under the appearance of truth such tortuous errors are every day adopted. We must add that this want deeply affects the happiness of life; since, when we time after time blindly mistake our way, our comfort must in a great measure be lost, and the feelings of self reproach and disappointment must be familiar to our minds.

It may be admitted that we possess abundant rules which indirectly lead to the justest conceptions in moral evidence: that every well-reasoned book is an useful lesson; and that in a country in which Chillingworth and Clarke have written, and Mansfield and Camden have spoken and decided, we cannot be destitute of the principles of moral evidence:—but we require not materials and examples, but direct instruction and a regulated discipline. In short, the young mind is in want of rules and canons, and of a system of teaching that amid varied probabilities will tell it how to act with safety.

In inculcating the art of reasoning and judging, writers have sagaciously begun with the first elements, in the unfolding of which they have been most particular and minute: but they have dwelt so long on the necessary rudiments, that their strength has been exhausted, and though they saw that it was needful to advance considerably farther, yet, in some degree satisfied, they sat down already wearied with their journey. Systems of logic generally stop where they should assume new vigour, and close at that point from which they should set out on discussions that are most useful and interesting. Even Locke, who laboured so much and so successfully for the improvement of the intellect, doubtless ended his exertions prematurely; and he spent so much time in the threshold of knowledge, that, when the folding doors of the Temple itself were thrown open to him, he had time only to take a general glance of the riches that were within his view. How valuable are his chapters on the extent and reality of Human Knowledge, on Probability, on the degrees of Assent, on Reason and Faith, and on wrong Assent or Error; and how much is it to be regretted that instruction of this kind was not more extended!

It is in the discussion of this very interesting subject of moral evidence, that Mr. Gambier is engaged. He styles the work before us an Introduction; and he acknowledges that he



borrowed ideas liberally from those who have cultivated this field before him, since he intends his book chiefly for persons who are in a great measure unacquainted with the subject. He considers the nature of moral evidence, and shews in various particulars how it differs from demonstration. He examines also the several kinds of probable evidence, and discusses their comparative weight; such as personal observation, testimony, notoriety, report, analogy, internal evidence, presumptions, &c. He then proceeds to give general directions with regard to moral reasoning, and here he offers very proper advice; viz. that we should labour to acquire fixed principles of evidence, and precise rules of judging; and that, before we enter on a discussion, we should leisurely inquire whether the question be worth investigating, whether it admits of free examination, whether it be capable of a satisfactory decision, and whether we be indeed competent to the investigation of it. He imparts also wise cautions; that we should guard against the fascinations of expression in the arguments which we are considering, and the mis-statement of degrees; that our observation should be made on as large a scale as is possible; and that the proof depends not on the number but on the weight of the arguments. His fourth chapter consists of a variety of judicious directions relating to each kind of moral evidence, and the qualifications that should attend them; discussing also personal observation, with its circumstances; testimony, and the credibility of witnesses; tradition; presumptive evidence, &c. The last chapter is of a general nature, viz. on the kinds of evidence which different subjects admit; and here he is led to mention mathematics; moral maxims; subjects of natural history; hand-writing; law-suits; public events; history; miracles, &c. From the appendix, 'On disputing for Victory and not for Truth,' we give an extract, as a specimen of the author's manner:

“Whenever a man engages in a debate without proposing to himself the establishment of some point which he really believes to be true; or whenever he attempts to prove that some truth is an error, or some error is true; he is disputing for victory and not for truth. Disputants of this kind often deny such positions of their opponent as though true do not admit of specific proof. Of this kind are those which are founded on observation or experience, or general notoriety. They dispute facts which they do not disbelieve, and take the chance of their opponents not being furnished with positive proof of them. They explain away those maxims which are founded on the general experience of men. They demand a species or degree of proof of which the subject does not admit. They lay hold of an occasional word dropped by their opponent, either to divert the discussion from the subject in question, or to give a false sense to an argument.

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They cite their opponent's words unfairly, or give them a different meaning from what he intended by them. They endeavour to evade the question by substituting some other question instead of it. They endeavour to confound the principles either of evidence or morality on which the decision of the question must depend. Such disputants must, of course, have a great advantage over a fair and honest reasoner, whose only object is to discover and establish the truth ; for he cannot allow himself to take any unfair advantage, or to use any methods which would be likely to mislead.'

We may say, in general, that we are well pleased with this volume as an Introduction. It contains, however, too little discussion to arrest the mind, and too little example and illustration to produce clearness and interest. The author endeavours to excuse these defects by speaking of his situation, and saying that such subjects must necessarily be dry : but Crousaz, though in a retired situation, imparted to the same subject both attraction and perspicuity by his multiplied examples. The shortness of the present work, which consists of only 163 pages, often cuts off investigation in the middle, and gives an air of paradox to many positions which would not have had that appearance if they had been spread out in the manner of the original writer whence the idea was taken. We had intended to combat some of the assertions so generally and oracularly delivered : but we abstain, lest we might be triumphantly accused of sacrilegiously tearing off some phylactery of Bacon, Locke, or Reid.

ART. VII. *The Gardener's Remembrancer throughout the Year*, exhibiting the newest and most improved Methods of Manuring, Digging, Sowing, &c. ; the Natures of Earth, Water, Heat, Air and Climate, best adapted for the Culture of Plants, and Production of Fruits, Flowers, and esculent Vegetables, in the natural and the forcing Way ; the Causes and Symptoms of Disease and Barrenness in Trees of every Kind, with Means of Prevention and Cure. To which is prefixed a View of Mr. Forsyth's Treatise on Trees. By James M'Phail, twenty Years Gardener to the Earl of Liverpool. 8vo. pp. 618. 12s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.

FROM the moment at which he takes up his pen, almost to the final close of the work, this author, like the infuriated Malay, *runs a-muck*, and deals out vengeance against all who oppose or seem to oppose his wild career. The first sentence of the prefixed advertisement contains an attack on Mr. Forsyth and Mr. Speechley, because they have presumed to give opinions on the culture and management of trees which are different from those of Mr. M'Phail ; and nearly at the conclusion

species of music, refinement cannot be a stranger, and general improvement must be very far advanced.

To the *musical* world, collections of the kind before us must be pleasing and useful. In an extensive miscellany we may reasonably expect a little that is precious; and amid much that may be unimportant, the ear will sometimes be pleased with a more fortunate melody that shall dwell with it for a long time. It is to be noticed also that the rudest airs may become the ground-work of such as shall be elegant and refined. The fact is that, in the contexture of modern music, we are often delighted by them without acknowledgement: for it may be known that, in many of the most splendid pieces of the most eminent masters, are sometimes interwoven fragments of those wild airs which owed their birth to no regularly-bred musician. Art has communicated its contrivances and its ornaments, and the most improved ears are enraptured by that which often gladdened the hearts of the rudest and most ignorant. It would therefore shew the most marked ingratitude to deny our obligations to the collectors of national airs; and among them we cannot but recognize Mr. Jones, the publisher of the present work, who has before been much employed in gleanng musicals, chiefly in Wales and its neighbourhood.

With regard to the present volume, we may observe that it is sufficiently miscellaneous, and brought from afar. We are transported to Greece, to Turkey, to Arabia, to Persia, to Hindostan, and to China; whence we come home by Sweden, and have our ears exercised by most dissimilar melodies. After all, however, we must confess that we are only moderately pleased with this "*far sought and dear-bought*" entertainment: it gratifies to a certain degree the curiosity, but it does not delight the ear; and in the 32 pages of music, we find very few airs which catch our fancy, and induce us to repeat them again and again.

It may surprise some persons to find that the Turkish music is among the most regular of the collection, and in a few instances not destitute of beauty; and that what is exhibited as Greek music is far from being attractive. The Persian air at page 25 has considerable beauty; and the Turkish march, page 24, and the Turkish air, page 32, deserve to be specified as good. The hymn sung by the Chinese to their Deity Joss, page 29, bears some resemblance to the slow airs which are sung to Gaelic words in the Highlands of Scotland; or to some of the rudest of the Scotch airs. The Hindoostanee song, like the Aborigines of the country, has great simplicity; and if it had Erse words, it might be sung in the Isle of Sky as an Highland song. — What, however, shall we say to the music  
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in this collection which is denominated Greek, and which the editor affirms to be in some instances the airs that have traditionally come down from the most remote antiquity?—for example, ‘a Hymn of rejoicing on the return of Theseus from slaying the Minotaur,’ &c. &c.—The learned have found the subject of Greek music to be involved in the thickest darkness; and the scanty notation which has been preserved cannot be decyphered by the most studious and skilful musicians;—they see notes, but they never yet have found the *Cantelina*:—but in the specimens here given of Greek music, the measure is direct, the air is palpable, and our ears are assailed with nothing very uncommon. How is this to be explained? Where little is known, will our readers indulge us in a conjecture, and forgive us if we err?—If these airs be what they are called, if they exist in Greece, be sung by the people, and have come down from the most remote periods, then the fragments of perplexed notation, which have so often baffled the ingenuity of the learned, are probably the attempted expression of Greek *recitative*; in which the tones of speech are imitated to a certain degree, as in the declamation of their tragedies, and song and melody can never be expected to be found. Besides this, it would appear that *national* airs always existed, with which the rudest of the people were well acquainted; and it is some of these (which, however, modern times have rather coloured) that are here exhibited. Without seeking to be minute, we may say that they are not unlike some of the plainest airs of the Welsh. Such resemblances, together with those which we have noted before, call on the philosophic mind to go deeply into the subject: but we must break away from farther conjectures, and will not even say whither they might lead us.

It appears that this collection of Greek and Turkish music was formed by an English traveller in the Levant, who permitted the use of it to the editor. Mr. Jones has written basses under the different pieces, which, on the whole, have a decent suitableness and correspondence: but, though in a work of this kind we could not expect the refined accompaniment of Haydn and Kozeluch, we could have wished, in some instances, for a more learned and effective counterpoint.

The various melodies are preceded by a dissertation on the ancient Greek music. Nothing, we will venture to say, can be more desultory than this essay; which seems to contain every thing but the matter which its title announces. In perusing it, we could not but recollect a story which we once heard of a writer of Dissertations. He had hung up in his apartment various green bags, which he allotted to his different subjects:—whenever he thought of an argument, or heard an anecdote,

conclusion of this motley performance, Mr. Nicol's methods of planting dwarf-trees in peach-houses meet with marked reprobation.

It is by no means our intention to follow the author in his controversial and capricious disquisitions ; nor to attempt to appreciate the correctness or propriety of his criticism on the ideas and practices of those whom he opposes ; — not, however, on account of the difficulty of the task, because, if his own opinions, dictated as they often seem to be by prejudice and envy, were tried fairly in the balance, they would most assuredly be found wanting, — but because the limits which we can allot to this article would be insufficient, and because we could not hope that so dull and so tedious an investigation would be either amusing or instructive to our readers. Mr. M'Phail seems to have a peculiar abhorrence of every proposed improvement which is not his own discovery or invention : but what candour or liberality is to be expected from him who has so unequivocally expressed his sentiments in the following words ?

' It is not likely that gardeners will submit to be guided by the directions of Mr. Angerstein's gardener\* in the way he is offering to give them, even supposing *they believed them to be somewhat useful*. Most gentlemen's gardeners are indeed, like other men, apt to learn and to adopt any real improvement which they think will turn to their masters' interest, but being also like men in other stations very jealous of their honour, for fear of losing their places, they greatly dislike to appear in the eye of their masters deficient in the knowledge of the business they profess and covenanted to be capable of performing,' p. 79.

Now with all the knowledge and experience which the author has acquired, after having been for twenty years gardener to the Earl of Liverpool, we must take leave to tell him that the gardeners in the employment of gentlemen of fortune are in general intelligent, liberal, and upright ; and we trust that it will be a difficult matter to influence them by the broad insinuation here thrown out, to act the part of hypocrites. How can they be ' apt to learn and adopt any real improvement,' and yet refuse to be guided by what they believe ' to be somewhat useful ;' and who ever honestly covenanted to perform a thing of which he possessed no previous knowledge ? The old maxim, " that it is never too late to learn," has entirely escaped Mr. M'Phail's recollection.

The advertisement to this work, as we have already noticed, commences with a violent attack on Messrs. Speechley

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\* A Mr. Stewart, who, the author says, had been extraordinarily officious in forming hot-houses according to his patent plans.

and Forsyth; and even the Duke of Portland's library, to which Mr. Speechley had access to consult books, and Dr. Hunter, the friend of Mr. Forsyth, come in for some share of the author's wrath. It concludes indeed with a shew of candour; for he promises to leave without censure the methods of practical private gardeners, even though they should be different from his own!

The first subject of discussion is, a *View of Mr. Forsyth's Treatise on Trees and Compositions*; and after having strongly denounced Mr. F.'s method of pruning trees, the writer makes the following remarks:

'That there are unskilful pruners and trainers, I mean not to controvert. Indeed the keeping wall trees in good order requires so much skill, attention and labour, it is no wonder so many are in a state which admits of improvement. But it would have been more becoming of Mr. F. to have searched for and pointed out the true causes of the failure of fruit at the "master's table," than in order to exalt his own ingenuity to have stigmatized gentlemen's gardeners who follow not his directions, of losing a "few hours sleep," to rub into growing pears, 'cow dung and wood ashes.' (p. 10.)

'In the year 1791, the Earl of Liverpool told me he desired I would follow Mr. F.'s directions in the management of his fruit trees, and that Mr. F. would come to Addiscombe Place to instruct me; accordingly he came in a post chaise, like a gentleman; and without much hesitation I told him I understood he was deputed to teach me how to cure the diseases in fruit trees, and as his Lordship's trees were much infected and hurt by the mildew, I would be obliged to him to tell me a method either to cure or prevent that disease. Mr. F. replied, that his composition was for healing the wounds and curing the canker, but not the mildew.' (p. 27.)

*The Culture of the Pine Apple* next occupies Mr. McPhail's attention, and about twenty six pages of his work, during which Mr. Forsyth enjoys a short respite from his vengeance: but Messrs. Speechley and Kennedy are very roughly handled. In considering the *Construction of Hot-houses*, he furiously attacks Dr. Anderson and Mr. Stuart, the joint patentees of an improved hot-house: but the account of the *Best Construction of Hot-houses*, from the author's own plans, is given with temper, because he is wise enough not to quarrel with himself. Yet this calm of short duration is only the fore-runner of a most violent storm, which bursts in greater fury in a further *View of Mr. F.'s Treatise, &c.* For the benefit of authors in general, we must quote a few sentences from p. 95.

'But if he (Mr. Forsyth) would duly consider only his title-page, dedication, and conclusion, it might be the means of humbling him a little in his own sight. His book is dedicated to one of the  
greatest

greatest and best Kings in the world, and his title-page announces that his treatise is "published by order of government," a government which is allowed to be one of the wisest and ablest that ever governed a nation. The titles he gives himself by "initials," which, according to his own account, have "often brought on the destruction of a tree;" I am not able to decypher, consequently such unlearned people as myself may think that F.A.S. and F.S.A. have a reference to a man of great acquisitions in the learned languages.

We must confess our inability 'to decypher' the above (we suspect) unmeaning invective of the author, who has resumed the subject in consequence of the correspondence between Dr. Anderson and Mr. Knight, on the efficacy of Mr. Forsyth's composition-plasters: but we *admire* his *delicacy* when he says, with a dash of gallantry, 'Mr. Forsyth's recipes are, in my opinion, of such a nature, and composed mostly of such filthy ingredients, which by his directions are to be used about fruits which ladies love, that I intend not to defile my hands in using them for the purpose he recommends.' (p. 100.)

The methods of cultivating the Melon, the Grape-vine, the Peach, and various other fruits, and lastly the method of forcing roses, are severally discussed in separate treatises; and, having exhausted above 150 pages of the work in cavilling and preliminary dissertations, the author travels round the year in giving the usual directions in the different departments of horticulture for each successive month. We have not observed any thing new or ingenious in these directions: but they will be found useful to those who have only a limited experience in the art.

We are next favoured with a short dissertation on the qualifications of a good gardener, who 'must have a little education, and not only be steady, industrious, and thoughtful, but also possessed of knowledge and genius adapted to his profession,' p. 575. In short, a good gardener, according to the character here given, which is equally applicable to every other profession, is a good gardener. After some remarks on the soil and situation of a kitchen-garden, Mr. Nicol's *Forcing-Fruit-Gardener* is critically examined; and, as usual, the writer discovers that Mr. Nicol's knowledge is very confined. A mode of increasing mushroom-spawn is next given; and the diseases of vegetables are then treated with such extreme brevity as to occupy only 4½ pages. A list of plants, for the kitchen-garden, fruit-trees, flowers, &c. &c. is added.

Our opinion of this work may be easily collected from the remarks which we have already made. It would require much *pruning* and *dressing* to make it tolerable, even though we should not be fastidious in wishing to see it exhibited in high

order : but to weed out the violations of grammar with which it abounds, and which have grown up most luxuriantly, would indeed be an Herculean labour.

ART. VIII. *Pharmacopæia Collegii Regalis Medicorum Londinensis*, 1809. 4to. 1l. 4s. Boards, and 12mo. 4s. sewed. Longman and Co.

ART. IX. *The Pharmacopæia of the Royal College of Physicians of London*, 1809. Translated into English, with Notes, &c. By Richard Powell, M.D. Fellow of the College, &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Longman and Co. 1809.

ART. X. *The Pharmacopæia of the Royal College of Physicians of London*, 1809. Translated by Hector Campbell, M.D. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Miller, Chancery-lane.

IN our account of Dr. Bostock's pamphlet on pharmaceutical nomenclature\*, we have anticipated some of the remarks which would otherwise have been made in the course of our examination of the works now before us. We agreed with that gentleman in many of his observations on the general question, whether it be desirable to adopt the scientific language of natural history and chemistry in pharmacy, and of course to follow it in all its changes ; and we farther coincided with him in thinking that the Edinburgh College of Physicians, in their attempts at reform, failed in establishing those fixed principles, which might stand a chance of giving permanency to the terms which they had adopted. How far this want of permanency ought in justice to be attributed to the state of the science, or how far to a deficiency of judgment or knowledge in the individuals concerned, we did not venture to decide. We apprehend, however, that the London Physicians thought differently from us with respect to the success of their brethren in Edinburgh ; since, although they have chosen to differ very widely from them in the precise terms which they have employed, so as most effectually to produce that discordance between the two Pharmacopœiæ, which Dr. Bostock pointed out as an evil of considerable magnitude, yet they have proceeded exactly on the same principle, inasmuch as their object has been to employ the modern scientific terms in pharmacy. As it will be unnecessary to enter again on the discussion of the general question, we shall at present chiefly confine ourselves to an examination of the manner in which the reform has been executed.

Before, however, we enter on the Pharmacopœia itself, we must take some notice of the preface. This we have heard

\* See Review for November last.



mentioned as a specimen of remarkably pure latinity. It may be so, and we are far from wishing to insinuate that it is not so : but we really consider this point as of too little importance to engage our attention. We are willing to grant not only this merit, but praise of a higher description ; since we think that the preface is, for the most part, sensible, candid, and modest ; it sets forth, in terms almost of humility, the claims which the labours of the College have to public estimation ; the advantages likely to result from them are rated very lowly ; and it fully admits the inconvenience and even the danger of frequent changes. We must indeed confess that the kind of apology with which it sets out, for venturing to bring forwards a new edition of the Pharmacopœia, '*annis viginti duobus vin elapsis*,' was extremely unnecessary, and can only be regarded as an attempt to shut the eyes of the readers to the negligence of the College in suffering so long a period to elapse, when we consider the unparalleled advances which have been made during this interval in the sciences of natural history, botany, and chemistry. Were we inclined to criticize the preface with severity, we might object to the expectation which is held forth, that the reader will find in it any information respecting the powers and nature of medicines ; as well as to the practice which the College professes to have adopted, of making additions to the *materia medica* for the sake of order and neatness, '*ordo et concinnitas*.' We might also point out the inconsistency of their method of proceeding, when, after the acknowledged difficulty and danger which attend such change, they have in fact, in many instances, abandoned their very principle, and adopted unscientific names because they were more simple. They freely own that some of their new terms must appear very strange, and that *antbemis* and *lytta* will sound very oddly to those who have been accustomed to *chamamelum* and *cantharis* ; and no doubt every practitioner, out of the pale of the college, will agree with them in this opinion :—but, they exclaim, '*quid contra omnium Physicorum auctoritatem facere, aut qui potuimus nominis animalium, herbarum, lapidumque, ea retinere, quæ rebus omnino diversis scriptores in eo genere principes imposuerant*?' To the first part of this appeal, we reply that they should have acted as every one, except professed naturalists, will still act ; they should have continued to call these substances *chamamelum* and *cantharis* ; — and with respect to the latter part, we answer, that the old terms will be much better understood by all those who have any connection with pharmacy than the new appellatives.

We now arrive at the body of the work itself; and we begin with the Weights and Measures. — The former remain as before, but the latter have undergone a considerable and important alteration. Instead of the old divisions of the gallons into pints, ounces, drachms, and drops, a new set of terms, with their corresponding characters, are employed; viz. *octarii*, *fluiduncie*, *fluidrachme*, and *minima*. The substitution of *octarius* for *libra* is, we think, an improvement; because there were some cases in which the use of the same character for the pint and the pound might occasionally lead to confusion. Perhaps we may pardon the *fluid-ounce* and the *fluid-drachm*, though we rather suspect that these are among the alterations and additions which have been made more for the sake of 'order and neatness,' than from any real necessity. In the recommendation which is afterward given, to discontinue the practice of measuring fluids by drops, we heartily concur; and perhaps, on the whole, good reasons might be assigned for dividing the fluid-drachm as well as the old drachm into 60 parts: yet we could have wished that some more appropriate term had been invented. We have, however, one serious objection to make with respect to this subject, that the volume does not contain any table or scale by which drops are to be compared with minims; and it is probable that a great number of practitioners, who have never particularly attended to the subject, will imagine that 60 drops and 60 minims are identical. The fact, however, is that drops and minims differ so widely, that he who should confound these quantities in his prescriptions might commit irreparable mischief; and in the case of the tincture of opium, and the tincture of digitalis, the prescriber would be administering to his patients considerably more than double the quantity of those active medicines which he intended to give them. Dr. Powell, in his translation, has supplied, although very imperfectly, the deficiency: but surely the College has no right to conclude that every practitioner in England will be in possession of Dr. Powell's translation. This inaccuracy is the more inexcusable, also, because about two years ago a judicious treatise was written on this very subject by Mr. Shuttleworth of Liverpool, in which he observed the variable relation which drops of different kinds of fluid bear to the drop-measure, as it is called. It appears to us not unlikely that this pamphlet may have suggested to the College the idea of abandoning the plan of dropping; yet it is only once vaguely mentioned, by Dr. Powell, in a note. The open tube, which is recommended for the purpose of measuring very small quantities of fluids, we

consider

consider as a mere plaything, which never can be introduced into general practice.

The grand point, in which this edition of the Pharmacopœia differs from the former, is the change that has taken place in the nomenclature, in consequence of the attempt to introduce into medicine the scientific language of natural history and chemistry. We shall proceed to examine to what extent, and in what manner, this has been executed. In the *materia medica*, independently of substances newly introduced, the number of alterations in the names of the articles is between 30 and 40; and yet, large as this number may appear, we think that, according to the principles on which the reform was conducted, it ought to have been larger. We shall illustrate this opinion by making a few observations on some of the leading articles, both those which have received new denominations, and those to which the old names are still attached.

The Gum Arabic of the shops is now called *Acacia Gummi*, in consequence of its being *supposed* to be the produce of a plant to which the name of *acacia vera* is applied. We are far from wishing to controvert this opinion, which is probably correct: but it is necessary to bring to the recollection of our readers that, a very short time ago, when the Edinburgh College published the last edition of their Pharmacopœia, this gum was *supposed* to be produced by the *mimosa Nilotica*; and after all we are not absolutely certain that it proceeds from either of these plants; or, even were this point clearly ascertained, that the plant may not have its name altered. Thus, for the sake of 'order and neatness,' (since we cannot conceive any other motive,) has this substance been deprived of an established name, which could admit of no mistake or ambiguity, for one which the next naturalist who visits Africa may discover to have been improperly applied.— A similar kind of remark will attach to the Aloe. Two species of this plant have long been employed in pharmacy, well known as the *Socotorine* and the *Barbadoes*; in the late Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, these were both referred to the *perfoliata*: but now we find that the Edinburgh Physicians, although proceeding on what appeared good ground, were deceived, and we are directed to call the two varieties *spicata* and *vulgaris*.— We have before noticed the change from *chamæmelum* to *anthemis*, which we imagine will not produce any injurious consequences, because we feel persuaded that it will never be adopted: but we now mention it as an illustration of the idea which we have already suggested, that the reform made by the College, while it is sufficiently extensive to produce the

greatest inconvenience, is yet very imperfect. Of the plant producing chamomile flowers, scarcely an individual in this country is ignorant : therefore the change of name can only be vindicated on the general principle, that the language of pharmacy should be assimilated to that of botany ; yet after all the object is not gained. *Anthemis*, as is well known to every botanist, is the name, not of any particular plant, but of an extensive family of plants ; so that, when the article *anthemidis flores* is mentioned, if we were not previously aware that it was intended for the common chamomile flowers, we should be at a loss to determine to what substance it applied. The astringent extract, called *catechu*, as well as gum Arabic, is in constant use, and perfectly familiar to every medical man ; yet there has been equal difficulty in ascertaining from what plant it was derived. When the Edinburgh Physicians published their Pharmacopœia, it was supposed to be a preparation from the *mimosa catechu*, and this name was therefore given to it : but, as the case has been with gum Arabic, catechu is now thought to be produced from a species of acacia, and yet it still retains its old name. The reason, no doubt, which would be given for this want of system, and for this departure from the principle of 'order and neatness,' is that *extractum acacia catechu* would be an inconvenient term ; we admit that it would be so : but, on the very same ground, we object to a considerable part of all the alterations which have been introduced.—If our limits would permit us to enlarge on this branch of the subject, we could bring forwards many instances of the unnecessary introduction of new and doubtful terms to designate well-known substances ; and of other instances in which the old terms are still retained, although they do not accord with the latest discoveries in natural history.

We must next proceed to examine the nomenclature of the chemical articles ; and here again we meet with what appears to us an unfortunate compound of adherence to system and of departure from it, so as to puzzle both the scientific and the unscientific, the practitioner who is acquainted with modern chemistry and him who is ignorant of it. Thus most of the salts are expressed in the new language, though with a whimsical and unmeaning inversion of the order of the terms ; as *ammonia murias*, *cupri sulphas*, &c., while in other instances either the old name is retained, or a kind of compromise is made between the two. Thus verdigris is still called *erugo*, and alum *alumen* ; while ceruse, the subcarbonate of lead, is called *plumbi carbonas* ; and borax, the subborate, is called the borate of soda. Lime, which is called *lapis calcareus*, should have been denominated *carbonas calcis*, and its different varieties ought

ought to have been inserted with their appropriate designations. What is called *soda tartarizata* is properly a triple salt, and should have been *tartras soda et potassa*; and in the term *creta preparata*, we may remark that *preparata*, as applied to this and other substances, is not correct: *purificata*, or *lota*, would have been preferable; and *creta* is certainly inadmissible. It may here be said, as on a former occasion, that the accurate terms for these substances would have been inconveniently long: but what is the practical inference from this circumstance? not that the new language should have been adopted in some places and rejected in others, but that it is not accommodated to the purposes of pharmacy, and therefore should have been entirely abandoned.—The deviations from the principles of the new nomenclature are not less glaring in the metallic preparations. The *antimonii sulphuretum præcipitatum* is an hydrosulphuret; *antimonium tartarizatum* is the tartrate or supertartrate of antimony and potash; the oxid of arsenic is the arseneous acid; and the *liquor arsenicalis* is not, as the present name would import, a solution of arsenic, but of the arsenite of potash. *Cuprum* and *ferrum ammoniatum* are not correct titles for the preparations to which they are prefixed; nor can we permit the unscientific term of *ferrum alkalinum* to pass without censure.—Although we have mentioned these names as being errors in nomenclature rather than mistakes respecting the nature or composition of the substances, yet we find others which we can scarcely avoid regarding as downright blunders: such, for example, are the *carbonas potassa impurus*, the *carbonas soda impurus*, and the *carbonas ammonie*, all of which are in fact subcarbonates.

In entering on an examination of the preparations and compounds, which might be extended to a bulk equal to that of the volume itself, we must rest satisfied with noticing a few prominent parts, and with pointing out some of the most important alterations. To the acids and alkalies, some useful additions are made; as the citric acid, and the neutralized carbonates of potash and soda: but of one of the changes we cannot approve, viz. that the solutions, which were formerly called *aque*, are now styled *liquores*. Probably the name was altered in order to prevent any ambiguity or confusion between this class of substances and the distilled waters: but, if a change was necessary, why not adopt the term *solutio*?

The section which gives an account of the metallic preparations must be regarded as one of the most important parts of the work; and much care and attention appear to have been bestowed on it. To say that it has received many improvements, compared with the former edition,

would be giving it a very scanty tribute of praise; and even to say that it exhibits a correct view of the present state of chemical science would be ascribing to it no more than might be reasonably expected from the learned body under whose sanction it is published. The preparations of antimony are first in order; but of the many forms in which the ingenuity and perseverance of the older chemists contrived to exhibit this metal, only five are retained. This is a smaller number than has ever appeared in any modern Pharmacopœia; and yet we confess that in our opinion they are all which are essential. They consist of an oxid and a sulphuret of the metal, tartarized antimony, the antimonial powder, (intended as a substitute for or an imitation of James's powder, although very improperly made of a different strength from the former preparation of the same name,) and a standard solution of tartarized antimony. This selection appears to us judicious. When compared even with the last Edinburgh Pharmacopœia, it shews a continued improvement in medical science; because we regard no circumstance to be so certain a proof of this amelioration, as the increased simplicity of pharmaceutical preparations. The oxid of antimony is directed to be prepared by dissolving the sulphuret in a mixture of the muriatic and nitric acids, by precipitating the oxid from this solution by the sub-carbonate of potash, and by removing any adhering acid by the repeated affusion of water. In the employment of the nitro-muriatic acid, the College may be said to have acted correctly, for this is certainly the proper solvent of the metal; but we suspect that they are not equally correct in their idea that the addition of the alkali will unite to the whole of the acid, and will throw down the metal in the state of a pure oxid; or rather in such a state of loose combination with the acid, that this last can be removed by the mechanical action of water. We are inclined to believe that the metal will be left in the state of the sub-muriate; and after all, perhaps, the method of oxidating antimony by heating it in contact with nitre, though less free from impurity, may be considered as producing an oxid, in which the extraneous matter is less important with respect to its employment in pharmacy. Whatever may be the case with regard to this preparation, we think that it was incumbent on the College to have framed its title so that the prescriber might know precisely what he was employing. As it now stands, he might be led to conceive that this oxid of antimony was an exact substitute for the oxid of the former Pharmacopœia, and that it might be administered in the same doses. The tartarized antimony is formed by boiling together the oxid of the metal with the crystals of tartar, and differs from the formula directed

directed by the Edinburgh College, only in the latter using the crocus of antimony, while the London College employs an oxid formed according to the preceding formula. Perhaps no preparation in the whole range of pharmacy has given rise to more discussion than the one in question; and yet we are still scarcely agreed as to the best method of preparing it, or even as to its composition. Of the two, we should rather incline to prefer the crocus, as being less likely to be prepared in such a manner as that the tartarized antimony might be affected by any variation in its nature.

Arsenic now for the first time takes its place as an article of the *materia medica*; and we have what is called an oxid of arsenic, and a *liquor arsenicalis*. This is the solution of Dr. Fowler, made of a convenient strength for the purpose of prescription: but we have already remarked that, according to the principles of the new nomenclature, it ought to have been called the arsenite of potash. — The preparations of mercury are ten in number; the oxymuriat and a standard solution of the same, the mixture of mercury and chalk, calomel, (or, as it is called, the submuriat of mercury,) the grey oxid, the red oxid, as formed both by heat and by the nitric acid, (the latter of which is called the nitric oxid,) the white precipitated mercury, purified mercury, and the red sulphuret. The list of mercurial preparations might, we think, have been enlarged; the acetate of mercury, the sulphat, and the black sulphuret having probably as great a claim on our attention as the mercury and chalk, the grey oxid, or the white precipitate. Against the nomenclature of two of these substances, *hydrargyri oxymurias*, and *hydrargyri submurias*, we must enter our protest; not only from the mistakes which we are persuaded may happen from the similarity of the names, but because the scientific appellation of these substances is still very far from being correctly ascertained. The corrosive sublimate is perhaps intitled to the name of oxymuriat, since it appears to consist of mercury and muriatic acid in union with an additional quantity of oxygen; though we may have some reason to doubt whether it be not rather a super-muriat than an oxymuriat. With respect to calomel, the analysis shews it to be a muriat, rather than a sub-muriat; or at least, if this be a sub-muriat, we must probably then be obliged to consider the corrosive sublimate as a muriat. — The term *hydrargyri nitricoxydum* we regard as an allowable innovation: but, though we have no objection in itself to the title *hydrargyrus precipitatus albus*, yet a denomination which refers not to the constitution of the substance, but to the mode of its formation, must appear

pear an anomaly in a nomenclature which professes to be founded entirely on scientific principles.

Among the vegetable substances, many new formulæ are introduced; not only those which are derived from new articles of the *materia medica*, but different preparations of such as were before in use. We find nine new Decoctions, and sixteen new Infusions. In general, we approve these additions: because, by giving standard directions for preparations which were formerly left to extemporaneous prescription, the practice of pharmacy is facilitated, and medicine itself is reduced to a state of greater certainty. Perhaps, indeed, some of these preparations might have been omitted; since, for example, the *decocta dulcamara* and *veratri*; and the *infusa caryophyllorum* and *cascarille*, will probably be very seldom required. — The Extracts have also received several additions; we have an extract of aconite, and of belladonna, a simple extract of colocynth, of hop, of hyosciamus, of rhubarb, of sarsaparilla, and of taraxacum. It is difficult to fix how far the College ought to go, in giving what may be considered as their sanction to new remedies, by inserting them in the Pharmacopœia. We may doubt whether the *lichen* or the dandelion deserves such a distinction: but we should say that, when any substance is frequently prescribed by a number of respectable practitioners, it ought to be admitted into the Pharmacopœia. Indeed, we consider one of the most important duties of the College to consist in superintending the state of medical practice; so that, when any article has acquired a degree of reputation; a standard formula for its exhibition may be fixed. It is a fact which we cannot but regard as tending very much to the discredit of that learned body, that a medicine so active and even dangerous as *digitalis* should have been for many years in constant use; that we should have had tinctures, infusions, and decoctions of it in every apothecary's shop in England, and yet that the strength and preparation of these formulæ should have been left to the caprice of individuals, or almost to mere chance. Proceeding on this principle, we conceive that the College might have very safely gone farther in the admission of new articles of the *materia medica*. Whatever we may individually think of the oxid of bismuth and the extract of rhatany, we know that they are frequently employed, and are recommended by high authority. The alkaline waters supersaturated by carbonic acid are useful preparations, and should have had a place in the Pharmacopœia; and the solution of carbonic acid in water might have been introduced under the name of *aqua acidi carbonici*. A concentrated acetic acid, such as is prepared from  
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the acetate of copper, (which possesses very different properties from the present *acidum aceticum*,) the tartaric acid, the hydro-sulphuret of ammonia, the muriatic, nitric, and acetic ethers, phosphorus, and perhaps some of its combinations, might all very fairly have claimed some attention from the College.

We have already extended this article so far as scarcely to leave any room for remarks on the translations. Dr. Powell's volume appears to come rather in an ambiguous form, partly under the authority of the College, and yet we apprehend that it must be considered as the Doctor's individual performance. The principal and indeed the essential merit of such a work is accuracy, which is a quality so much in every person's power, that very serious censure must attach to the want of it; and yet, in the present instance, we are sorry to observe this deficiency. Some incorrectnesses are extremely gross, and at the same time very important. Among other palpable blunders, we may point out the mistake respecting the proportional specific gravity of nitric acid and water, and also respecting the strength of the dilute nitric and sulphuric acids: but the two most shocking errors are Dr. Powell's statement of the quantity of arsenic and that of corrosive sublimate, which is contained in the solutions of these substances: nothing less than cancelling and re-printing these pages could atone for such culpable carelessness. We also deem it unfortunate that the translator has chosen to increase the size and expence of his volume very considerably by the addition of a great many notes: some of which, we admit, are useful, but very few if any indispensably necessary; and we esteem it a duty incumbent on the College to have provided a simple and correct translation, of little expence and of small size, which might have been the pocket-companion of every practitioner in the kingdom. We must also observe that Dr. Powell, in his preface and in many parts of his notes, betrays great ignorance of chemistry, both practical and theoretical; and that his style is awkward, sometimes scarcely intelligible, and even ungrammatical.—Dr. Campbell's translation is at least more correct than that of Dr. Powell, and it possesses the advantages of being cheap and portable.

From the above remarks, our readers will perceive that our judgment respecting this work is on the whole unfavourable; and it cannot be too much regretted that the narrow and illiberal system, on which the College of Physicians may be said to have acted, should have prevented them from taking advantage of the great body of literature and science which exists in this kingdom, but which unfortunately for them appears not to be found within their walls.

ART. XI. *The Borough*: a Poem in Twenty-four Letters. By the Rev. G. Crabbe, LL.B. 8vo. pp. 344. 10s. 6d. Boards. Hatchard. 1810.

MUCH amusement may be derived from drawing comparisons between the kindred arts, which address themselves to our taste and imagination; and it is an exercise that may sometimes afford no unprofitable employment to our general faculty of judging on subjects of this nature. The *belles lettres* and the fine arts bear a delightful analogy to each other; and though Dryden, in his epistle on painting, ought to have compared Michael Angelo, not Raffaele, to Homer,—and Raffaele, not Titian, to the Mantuan bard,—still we are indebted to him (though he was erroneous perhaps in the particular instance) for striking out such an idea. In conformity to it, we have heard Mr. Crabbe designated as the *Hogarth of Poetry*; and with reference to the force and truth of the descriptions of that deceased artist and this living poet, the moral effect of their combinations, their insight into human nature, and the particular mode and taste in which they love to study and represent it, we acknowledge much justice in the comparison. It might probably be this association which led us to expect, in the *Borough* of this author, something like a poetical counterpart to the series of the Election-pictures which were so admirably executed by the painting satirist: perhaps, indeed, the title itself naturally held forth some such promise; and the actual state of our domestic politics appeared likely to have drawn attention towards this topic. We may at all events be permitted to retain our opinion that a more animated, interesting, and popular poem would have been produced by such a mode of treating the subject, than by that which has been in fact adopted.

As men, however, are only children of a larger growth, so Mr. Crabbe's *Borough* is neither more nor less than his *Village*, extended beyond all reasonable bounds. The corporation is barely mentioned; the candidates and members are slightly sketched; and the long project of corruption which precedes the election,—the various intrigues that accompany its progress,—the conflicting interests which agitate the machinery in its complex operations,—the return of the fortunate representative,—and the sale which he makes in the metropolis of the seat which he has bought in the country,—all these and many other objects of vigorous and *reforming* satire are almost wholly overlooked. The election is indeed specifically introduced, but only for the purpose of tracing its subsequent effects on the society of the place; though it is so treated as to make  
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us feel sincere regret that it was not more largely discussed. The settled, the *stagnant*, state of society, within the geographical limits of the writer's imaginary borough, is the subject of the poem: the reader is successively introduced to a set of characters in middling and low life; and though the pictures may be spiritedly drawn, and faithfully accurate, they are only portraits, — detached, individual portraits, — illustrated sometimes indeed by a rather crowded allusive back-ground, but without grouping, without historical painting, without *composition*.

The want of arrangement and connection is more striking in this poem than in any other of equal length that we remember. We absolutely see no reason why any considerable passage in the whole course of it should occupy its particular place; and if we began at the last book, and read the books regularly backwards, or in any other order whatever, it would be impossible to increase the confusion. In the *Parish Register*, the several subjects were certainly united by a very slender thread; yet we could listen with delighted sympathy to the village-anecdote of a pastor who was paternally interested in the welfare of all his flock, and connected with some of them by the ties of friendship and affection: but *here*, who writes the letters, who receives them, and why or on what occasion they are composed, are questions to which no answer is attempted. In fact, it seems rather whimsical that they should be called *letters*, since they have nothing occasional, nothing personal; and we must add that their style is, on the whole, deficient in sprightliness and variety.

(Mr. Crabbe's unfavourable opinion of mankind, and his austere morality, remind us of the character of Persius given by Queen Elizabeth, viz. a *crab-staff*.) The author's own love of punning will forgive this allusion; and we will transcribe the justification which he offers at the conclusion of his work:

‘ No ! ’tis not worldly gain, although by chance  
The sons of learning may to wealth advance;  
Nor station high, though in some favouring hour  
The sons of learning may arrive at power;  
Nor is it glory, though the public voice  
Of honest praise will make the heart rejoice:  
But ’tis the mind’s own feelings give the joy,  
Pleasures she gathers in her own employ—  
Pleasures that gain or praise cannot bestow,  
Yet can dilate and raise them when they flow.

‘ For this the poet looks the world around,  
Where form and life and reasoning man are found;  
He loves the mind, in all its modes, to trace,  
And all the manners of the changing race;

Silent he walks the road of life along,  
 And views the aims of its tumultuous throng :  
 He finds what shapes the Proteus-passions take,  
 And what strange waste of life and joy they make,  
 And loves to show them in their varied ways,  
 With honest blame or with unflattering praise :  
 'Tis good to know, 'tis pleasant to impart,  
 These turns and movements of the human heart ;  
 The stronger features of the soul to paint,  
 And make distinct the latent and the faint ;  
 Man as he is, to place in all men's view,  
 Yet none with rancour, none with scorn pursue :  
 Nor be it ever of my portraits told—  
 " Here the strong lines of malice we behold."

' This let me hope, that when in public view  
 I bring my pictures, men may feel them true ;  
 " This is a likeness," may they all declare,  
 " And I have seen him, but I know not where :"  
 For I should mourn the mischief I had done,  
 If as the likeness all would fix on one.

' Man's vice and crime I combat as I can,  
 But to his God and conscience leave the man ;  
 I search (a Quixotte!) all the land about,  
 To find its giants and enchanters out,  
 (The giant-folly, the enchanter-vice,  
 Whom doubtless I shall vanquish in a trice :)  
 But is there man whom I would injure?—No!  
 I am to him a fellow, not a foe,—  
 A fellow-sinner, who must rather dread  
 The bolt than hurl it at another's head.

' No! let the guiltless, if there such be found,  
 Launch forth the spear, and deal the deadly wound ;  
 How can I so the cause of virtue aid,  
 Who am myself attainted and afraid?  
 Yet as I can, I point the powers of rhyme,  
 And, sparing criminals, attack the crime.'

We render full justice to these motives : but surely a more frequent exhibition of the ability of virtue to triumph over our evil propensities would be but a fair encouragement to frail human nature. (To tell us that there are certain temptations under which we cannot fail to yield, as soon as they are adequately presented to us, is in fact to say that we are puppets of an overpowering destiny ;) or the instruments of some such cunning Devil, as he who tempted *Abel Keene* to pocket the sacramental contributions for the relief of the poor. It may be also observed that too much uniformity prevails in this poet's denunciation of vice ; and in particular that those who

speak irreverently of the clergy are visited somewhat too frequently with his just indignation.

From what we have said, it may be collected that Mr. Crabbe has not, in our opinion, displayed any new talents in the work before us : but we have pleasure in stating, and in proving by our extracts, that the powers which he was known to possess are in some instances most vigorously developed. To his description of the heart-burnings which are consequent on a contested election we have already alluded, but the reader will be pleased with the passage :

' Yes, our election's past, and we've been free,  
Somewhat as madmen without keepers be ;  
And such desire of freedom has been shown,  
That both the parties wish'd her all their own :  
All our free smiths and coblers in the town,  
Were loth to lay such pleasant freedom down ;  
To put the bludgeon and cockade aside,  
And let us pass unhurt and undefied.

' True ! you might then your party's sign produce,  
And so escape with only half th' abuse ;  
With half the danger as you walk'd along,  
With rage and threat'ning but from half the throng :  
This you might do, and not your fortune mend,  
For where you lost a foe, you gain'd a friend ;  
And to distress you, vex you, and expose,  
Election-friends are worse than any foes ;  
The party-curse is with the canvass past,  
But party-friendship, for your grief, will last.

' Friends of all kinds ; the civil and the rude,  
Who humbly wish, or boldly dare t' intrude ;  
These beg or take a liberty to come,  
( Friends should be free,) and make your house their home ;  
They know that warmly you their cause espouse,  
And come to make their boastings and their bows :  
You scorn their manners, you their words mistrust,  
But you must hear them, and they know you must.

' One plainly sees a friendship firm and true,  
Between the noble candidate and you ;  
So humbly begs (and states at large the case),  
" You'll think of *Bobby* and the little place."

' Stifling his shame by drink, a wretch will come,  
And prate your wife and daughter from the room ;  
In pain you hear him, and at heart despise,  
Yet with heroic mind your pangs disguise ;  
And still in patience to the sot attend,  
To shew what man can bear to serve a friend.

' One enters hungry—not to be denied,  
And takes his place and jokes—"We're of a side."  
Yet worse, the proser who, upon the strength  
Of his one vote, has tales of three hours' length;  
This sorry rogue you bear, yet with surprise  
Start at his oaths; and sicken at his lies.

' Then comes there one, and tells in friendly way  
What the opponents in their anger say;  
All that through life has vex'd you, all abuse,  
Will this kind friend in pure regard produce;  
And having through your own offences run,  
Adds (as appendage) what your friends have done.

' Has any female cousin made a trip  
To Gretna-Green, or more vexatious slip?  
Has your wife's brother, or your uncle's son  
Done aught amiss, or is he thought t'have done?  
Is there of all your kindred some who lack  
Vision direct, or have a gibbous back?  
From your unlucky name may quips and puns  
Be made by these upbraiding Goths and Huns?  
'To some great public character have you  
Assign'd the fame to worth and talents due,  
Proud of your praise?—In this, in any case,  
Where the brute-spirit may affix disgrace,  
These friends will smiling bring it, and the while  
You silent sit, and practise for a smile.'—

' And though the terrors of the time be past,  
There still remain the scatterings of the blast;  
The boughs are parted that entwin'd before,  
And ancient harmony exists no more;  
The gusts of wrath our peaceful seats deform,  
And sadly flows the sighing of the storm:  
Those who have gain'd are sorry for the gloom,  
But they who lost, unwilling peace should come;  
There open envy, here supprest delight,  
Yet live till time shall better thoughts excite,  
And so prepare us by a six-years' truce,  
Again for riot, insult, and abuse.'—

' But 'tis not he, 'tis not the kinder few,  
The mild, the good. who can our peace renew;  
A peevish humour swells in every eye,  
The warm are angry, and the cool are shy;  
There is no more the social board at whist,  
The good old partners are with scorn dismiss'd;  
No more with dog and lantern comes the maid,  
To guide the mistress when the rubber's play'd;  
Sad shifts are made lest ribbons blue and green,  
Should at one table, at one time be seen;  
On care and merit none will now rely,  
'Is party sells, what party friends must buy;

The warmest burgess wears a bodger's coat,  
And fashion gains less interest than a vote;  
Uncheck'd the vintner still his poison vends,  
For he too votes, and can command his friends.'

Among the great variety of materials which lie before us for selection, we have some difficulty in choosing the best executed, or in determining between the respective merits of the present poem and the former productions of the same author. Our impression certainly is rather favourable to his preceding exertions; and we doubt whether any passage in this volume be quite so happily *bit off*, as the delineations of Isaac Ashford and Richard Monday, the Village Atheist, and the Parish Wedding, in the *Parish Register*: though persons are here described and their histories are related considerably more at length. The greatest portion of labour has been bestowed apparently on Blaney, an inhabitant of the Borough Almshouse, who has run through three fortunes with absurd extravagance, and becomes the most degraded of human beings in his old age. His early life is thus represented:

' Observe that tall pale veteran! what a look  
Of shame and guilt!—who cannot read that book!  
Misery and mirth are blended in his face,  
Much innate vileness and some outward grace;  
There wishes strong and stronger griefs are seen,  
Looks ever chang'd, and never once serene:  
Show not that manner, and these features all,  
The serpent's cunning and the sinner's fall?

' Hark to that laughter!—'tis the way he takes  
To force applause for each vile jest he makes;  
Such is yon man by partial favour sent  
To these calm seats to ponder and repent.

' *Blaney*, a wealthy heir at twenty-one,  
At twenty-five was ruin'd and undone:  
These years with grievous crimes we need not load,  
He found his ruin in the common road;  
Gam'd without skill, without enquiry bought,  
Lent without love, and borrow'd without thought.  
But, gay and handsome, he had soon the dower  
Of a kind, wealthy widow in his power;  
Then he aspir'd to loftier flights of vice,  
To singing harlots of enormous price:  
He took a jockey in his gig to buy  
An horse, so valued, that a Duke was shy:  
To gain the plaudits of the knowing few,  
Gamblers and grooms, what would not *Blaney* do?  
His dearest friend, at that improving age,  
Was *Hounslow Dick*, who drove the western stage.'

' He has some children, but he knows not whete,  
Something they cost, but neither love nor care;  
A father's feelings he has never known,  
His joys, his sorrows have been all his own.

' He now would build—and lofty seat he built,  
And sought, in various ways, relief from guilt.  
Restless, for ever anxious to obtain  
Ease for the heart by ramblings of the brain,  
He would have pictures, and of course a taste,  
And found a thousand means his wealth to waste;  
*Newmarket* steeds he bought at mighty cost,  
They sometimes won, but *Blaney* always lost.'

Of his subsequent fate and manners, a small sample may  
serve:

' Lo! now the hero shuffling through the town,  
To hunt a dinner and to beg a crown:  
To tell an idle tale, that boys may smile;  
To bear a strumpet's billet-doux a mile;  
To cull a wanton for a youth of wealth,  
(With reverend view to both his taste and health);  
To be an useful, needy thing between  
Fear and desire—the pander and the skreen;  
To flatter pictures, houses, horses, dress,  
The wildest fashion or the worst excess.'—

' *Blaney*, no aid in his vile cause to lose,  
Buys pictures, prints, and a licentious muse;  
He borrows every help from every art,  
To stir the passions and mislead the heart:  
But from the subject let us soon escape,  
Nor give this feature all its ugly shape;  
Some to their crimes, escape from satire owe,  
Who shall describe what *Blaney* dares to show?

At p. 232, among the trustees of the hospital, we encounter  
a character not new perhaps in the world, but we believe perfectly  
original in poetry:

' Again attend!—and see a man whose cares  
Are nicely plac'd on either world's affairs,—  
Merchant and saint; 'tis doubtful if he knows  
To which account he most regard bestows;  
Of both he keeps his ledger:—there he reads  
Of gainful ventures and of godly deeds;  
There all he gets or loses find a place,  
A lucky bargain and a lack of grace.

' The joys above this prudent man invite  
To pay his tax—devotion!—day and night!  
The pains of hell his timid bosom awe,  
And force obedience to the church's law:  
Hence that continual thought,—that solemn air,—  
Those sad good works, and that laborious prayer.



\* All these (when conscience, waken'd and afraid,  
To think how avarice calls and is obey'd)  
He in his journal finds, and for his grief  
Obtains the transient opium of relief.

" Sink not, my soul!—my spirit, rise and look  
O'er the fair entries of this precious book :  
Here are the sins, our debts ;—this fairer side  
Has what to carnal wish our strength denied ;  
Has those religious duties, every day  
Paid,—which so few upon the Sabbath pay ;  
Here too are conquests over frail desires,  
Attendance due on all the church requires ;  
Then alms I give—for I believe the word  
Of holy writ, and lend unto the Lord,  
And if not all th' importunate demand,  
The fear of want restrains my ready hand ;  
— Behold ! what sums I to the poor resign,  
Sums writ in Heaven's own book as well as mine !  
Rest then my spirit !—fastings, prayers, and alms,  
Will soon suppress these idly-rai'd alarms,  
And, weigh'd against our frailties, place in view  
A noble balance in our favour due ;  
Add, that I yearly here affix my name,  
Pledge for large payment—not for love of fame,  
But to make peace within ;—that peace to make,  
What sums I lavish ! and what gains forsake !  
Cheer up my heart !—let's cast off every doubt,  
Pray without dread, and place our money out."

One letter is devoted to a company of strolling players ! but we think that it contains nothing so affecting as the few words of apology for it in the preface :

" The letter on itinerant players will to some appear too harshly written, their profligacy exaggerated, and their distresses magnified ; but though the respectability of a part of these people may give us more favourable views of the whole body, though some actors be sober, and some managers prudent, still there is vice and misery left, more than sufficient to justify my description. But if I could find only one woman who (passing forty years on many stages, and sustaining many principal characters) laments, in her unrespected old age, that there was no work-house to which she could legally sue for admission ; if I could produce only one female, seduced upon the boards, and starved in her lodging, compelled by her poverty to sing, and by her sufferings to weep, without any prospect but misery, or any consolation but death ; if I could exhibit only one youth who sought refuge from parental authority in the licentious freedom of a wandering company ; yet, with three such examples, I should feel myself justified in the account I have given :—but such characters and sufferings are common, and there are few of these societies which could not show members of this description. To some, indeed, the life has its satisfactions ; they never expected to be free from labour,

and their present kind they think is light ; they have no delicate ideas of shame, and therefore duna and biases give them no other pain than what arises from the fear of not being trusted, joined with the apprehension that they may have nothing to subsist upon except their credit.'

(It is impossible not to lament that a mind thus nervous and powerful should often waste itself in dilating on useless particulars, which are sometimes trifling, and not seldom revolting.) In this point, a marked distinction prevails between the poet and the painter ; for while the latter may introduce a thousand subordinate aids, which shall promote the general effect, the former would destroy the required prominency of the capital figures, by devoting much space and many words to a narration of minor circumstances. Yet even the highly-wrought tale of Peter Grimes is not entirely free from feeble minutiz, though some parts of it are unquestionably very fine :

' Old *Peter Grimes* made fishing his employ,  
His wife he cabin'd with him and his boy,  
And seem'd that life laborious to enjoy :  
To town came quiet *Peter* with his fish,  
And had of all a civil word and wish.  
He left his trade upon the sabbath-day,  
And took young *Peter* in his hand to pray ;  
But soon the stubborn boy from care broke loose,  
At first refus'd, then added his abuse :  
His father's love he scorn'd, his power defied,  
But being drunk, wept sorely when he died.

' Yes ! then he wept, and to his mind there came  
Much of his conduct, and he felt the shame,—  
How he had oft the good old man revil'd  
And never paid the duty of a child ;  
How, when the father in his bible read,  
He in contempt and anger left the shed :  
" It is the word of life," the parent cried ;  
— ' This is the life itself,' the boy replied,  
And while old *Peter* in amazement stood,  
Gave the hot spirit to his boiling blood :—  
How he, with oath and furious speech, began  
To prove h's freedom and assert the man ;  
And when the parent check'd his impious rage,  
How he had curs'd the tyranny of age, —  
Nay, once had dealt the sacrilegious blow  
On his bare head and laid his parent low :  
' The father groan'd—" If thou art old," said he,  
" And hast a son— thou wilt remember me :  
' Thy mother left me in an happy time,  
' Thou kill'dst not her—heav'n spares the double crime."—  
' With greedy eye he look'd on all he saw,  
He knew not justice and he laugh'd at law ;

On all he mark'd he stretch'd his ready hand,  
 He fish'd by water and he fish'd by land :  
 Oft in the night has *Peter* dropt his oar,  
 Fled from his boat and sought for prey on shore ;  
 Oft up the hedge-row glided, on his back  
 Bearing the orchard's produce in a sack,  
 Or farm-yard load, tugg'd fiercely from the stack ;  
 And as these wrongs to greater numbers rose,  
 The more he look'd on all men as his foes.

' He built a mud-wall hovel, where he kept  
 His various wealth, and there he oft-times slept ;  
 But no success could please his cruel soul,  
 He wish'd for one to trouble and controul ;  
 He wanted some obedient boy to stand  
 And bear the blow of his outrageous hand ;  
 And hop'd to find in some propitious hour  
 A feeling creature subject to his power.'

This wish was gratified by his becoming successively the master of three parish-apprentices from London, who were all suspected by the neighbours to have met with unfair deaths. His state of mind, in the solitude to which he was condemned, is afterward described :

' Thus by himself compell'd to live each day,  
 To wait for certain hours the tide's delay ;  
 At the same time the small dull views to see,  
 The bounding marsh-bank and the blighted tree ;  
 The water only, when the tides were high,  
 When low, the mud half-cover'd and half dry ;  
 The sun-burn'd tar that blisters on the planks,  
 And bank-side stakes in their uneven ranks ;  
 Heaps of entangled weeds that slowly float,  
 As the tide rolls by the impeded boat.

' When tides were neap, and, in the sultry day,  
 Through the tall bounding mud-banks made their way,  
 Which on each side rose swelling, and below ;  
 The dark warm flood ran silently and slow ;  
 There anchoring, *Peter* chose from man to hide,  
 There hang his head and view the lazy tide  
 In its hot slimy channel slowly glide ;  
 Where the small eels that left the deeper way  
 For the warm shore, within the shallows play ;  
 Where gaping muscles, left upon the mud,  
 Slope their slow passage to the fallen flood ;—  
 Here dull and hopeless he 'd lie down and trace  
 How side-long crabs had scrawl'd their crooked race ;  
 Or sadly listen to the tuneless cry  
 Of fishing *Gull* or glancing *Golden-Eye* ;  
 What time the sea-birds to the marsh would come,  
 And the loud *Bittern*, from the bull-rush home,  
 Gave from the salt-ditch side the bellowing boom :

He nurs'd the feelings these dull scenes produce;  
 And loved to stop beside the opening sluice;  
 Where the small stream, confin'd in narrow bound,  
 Ran with a dull, unvaried, sadd'ning sound;  
 Where all presented to the eye or ear,  
 Oppress'd the soul with misery, grief, and fear.

' Besides these objects, there were places three,  
 Which *Peter* seem'd with certain dread to see;  
 When he drew near them he would turn from each,  
 And loudly whistle till he past the reach.'

We must not abridge the relation of this miserable man's  
 long phrenzy and death:

' Then as they watch'd him, calmer he became,  
 And grew so weak he couldn't move his frame,  
 But murmuring spake,—while they could see and hear,  
 The start of terror and the groan of fear;  
 See the large dew-beads on his forehead rise,  
 And the cold death-drop glaze his sunken eyes;  
 Nor yet he died, but with unwonted force,  
 Seem'd with some fancied being to discourse;  
 He knew not us, or with accustom'd art  
 He hid the knowledge, yet expos'd his heart;  
 'Twas part confession and the rest defence,  
 A madman's tale, with gleams of waking sense.

" I'll tell you all," he said " the very day  
 When the old man first plac'd them in my way;  
 My father's spirit—he who always tried  
 To give me trouble, when he liv'd and died—  
 When he was gone, he could not be content  
 To see my days in painful labour spent,  
 But would appoint his meetings, and he made  
 Me watch at these, and so neglect my trade.

" 'Twas one hot noon, all silent, still, serene,  
 No living being had I lately seen;  
 I paddled up and down and dipt my net,  
 But (such his pleasure) I could nothing get,—  
 A father's pleasure I when his toil was done,  
 To plague and torture thus an only son;  
 And so I sat and look'd upon the stream,  
 How it ran on, and felt as in a dream:  
 But dream it was not;—No I fix'd my eyes  
 On the mid stream and saw the spirits rise;  
 I saw my father on the water stand,  
 And hold a thin pale boy in either hand;  
 And there they glided ghastly on the top  
 Of the salt flood and never touch'd a drop:  
 I would have struck them, but they knew th' intent,  
 And smil'd upon the oar, and down they went.

" Now

" Now from that day, whenever I began  
 To dip my net, there stood the hard old man—  
 He and those boys ; I humbled me and pray'd  
 They would be gone ;—they heeded not, but stay'd :  
 Nor could I turn, nor would the boat go by,  
 But gazing on the spirits, there was I ;  
 They bade me leap to death, but I was loth to die :  
 And every day, as sure as day arose,  
 Would these three spirits meet me e'er the close ;  
 To hear and mark them daily was my doom,  
 And ' come,' they said, with weak, sad voices, ' come.'  
 To row away with all my strength I try'd,  
 But there were they, hard by me in the tide,  
 The three unbodied forms—and ' come' still ' come,' they  
 cried. }

" Fathers should pity—but this old man shook  
 His hoary locks and froze me by a look :  
 Thrice, when I struck them, through the water came  
 An hollow groan, that weaken'd all my frame :  
 ' Father !' said I, ' have mercy ;'— he replied,  
 I know not what—the angry spirit lied,—  
 ' Didst thou not draw thy knife ?' said he :—'twas true,  
 But I had pity and my arm withdrew :  
 He cried for mercy, which I kindly gave,  
 But he has no compassion in his grave.

" There were three places, where they ever rose,—  
 The whole long river has not such as those,—  
 Places accurs'd, where, if a man remain,  
 He'll see the things which strike him to the brain ;  
 And there they made me on my paddle lean,  
 And look at them for hours ;—accurs'd scene !  
 When they would glide to that smooth eddy space,  
 Then bid me leap and join them in the place ;  
 And at my groans each little villain sprite  
 Enjoy'd my pains and vanish'd in delight.

" In one fierce summer-day, when my poor brain  
 Was burning-hot and cruel was my pain,  
 Then came this father-foe, and there he stood  
 With his two boys again upon the flood ;  
 There was more mischief in their eyes, more glee  
 In their pale faces when they glar'd at me :  
 Still did they force me on the oar to rest,  
 And when they saw me fainting and oppress'd,  
 He, with his hand, the old man, scoop'd the flood,  
 And there came flame about him mix'd with blood ;  
 He bade me stoop and look upon the place,  
 Then flung the hot-red liquor in my face ;  
 Burning it blaz'd, and then I roar'd for pain,  
 I thought the demons would have turn'd my brain.

" Still there they stood, and forc'd me to behold  
 A place of horrors—they cannot be told—  
 Where the flood open'd, there I heard the shriek  
 Of tortur'd Guilt—no earthly tongue can speak :  
 ' All days alike ! for ever ! ' did they say,  
 ' And unremitted torments every day '—  
 Yes, so they said :—" But here he ceas'd and gaz'd  
 On all around, affrighten'd and amaz'd :  
 And still he try'd to speak and look'd in dread  
 Of frighten'd females gathering round his bed ;  
 Then dropt exhausted and appeared at rest,  
 Till the strong foe the vital powers possest ;  
 Then with an inward, broken voice he cried,  
 " Again they come," and mutter'd as he died."

Whatever censures we may have deemed it right to bestow on such traits as appear to us to be the faults of this work, the length of our extracts will prove that in our judgment it contains much to admire ; and if we were to quote all the verses that have pleased, affected, or shocked us, this article would not soon be brought to a conclusion. We abstain purposely from attempting to analyse so unmethodical a poem ; and we have observed with surprize how little Mr. Crabbe seems to be sensible of the value of a plot, or a leading subject. It is remarkable that, in the immense number of his characters, no two are represented as bearing any relation to or influencing the feelings of each other. — Among the poor and their dwellings he is quite at home : but here the description is almost copied from his former poem, except that the dread of exact repetition has made the present less rich in particulars. At the same time, many good subjects for poetry are disregarded. Why is not this *Borough* bounded by some antient monastery, or bold Roman wall ? Why is it not crowned by a towering castle, once the seat of baronial splendor and feudal contest, whose Keep secured the high-born captive, while its hall rang with shouts and minstrelsy ? The history of this edifice might have carried us back in imagination to the factions of the two Roses ; and, through the dismantling times of Cromwell, to the state in which its ruins might furnish hovels to the poor and vaults to the smuggler, while a few iron apartments still secured the fettered malefactor. A watch-fire might have gleamed over the waves from the summit of some lofty rock, at whose base the fisherman could cultivate his garden and train his fruit-trees. A shipwreck is indeed described, but in such a manner as to make us rather share the alarm of those on shore, than feel the horrible calamity of the foundering crew.

No part of our critical duty is so irksome as that of stigmatizing the violation of propriety in language : but, in the works of

of an author of eminence, we cannot endure such barbarous contractions as *couldn't, they'd, there'll, &c. &c.*)

(In taking our leave of Mr. Crabbe, (but, we hope, for no long period,) (we earnestly advise him, in his future efforts, to reject more boldly, to adopt more timidly, and to discriminate with greater caution.) Unless they are controuled by a severe judgment, copiousness and facility are disadvantages, or at least snares, to the possessor. Gifted as Mr. C. is with uncommon poetical powers, he will be in danger of failing to produce a great poem, unless he can brook the labour of correcting, polishing, and re-writing,) and submit to the sacrifice of resolutely expunging. In a beautiful passage in his preface, (p. vii.) in which he compares books to children, and says that all our pride is centered in those who are established in good company, but that all our fondness rests on those who are still at home, he admits his want of impartiality to draw a fair comparison between this and his former works. We have honestly endeavoured to assist his judgment; and we will not affront him by any apology for a freedom which is prompted only by respect for his talents, and anxiety for his reputation.

ART. XII. *An Introduction to the Study of Cryptogamous Plants.* In Letters. By Kurt Sprengel; D.M. Professor of Botany at Halle, &c. Translated from the German. 8vo. pp. 415. 18s. Boards. White.

**I**F we cannot concur in all the opinions and positions which are contained in these letters, we are fully sensible of the value of the many facts which the learned author's diligence and sagacity have enabled him to collect. In his endeavours to trace the outlines of the history of cryptogamous vegetation, he has evidently exerted so much patient and well directed labour, that the fruits of his researches will be thankfully welcomed by the resolute cultivators of this obscure, but highly interesting department of botanical science. His manner, however, is rather too dry and rigidly didactic, if he be desirous of inviting our fine ladies and gentlemen to hunt ferns and mosses. He manifests, it is true, the semblance of a series of letters, but seems not in the least anxious to exhibit a single particle of the genuine spirit of epistolary writing. Many important doctrines, both of a physical and a moral nature, are susceptible of being conveyed through the pleasing medium of supposed dialogue, or correspondence: but few writers are destined to excel in either of these species of composition; and he who cannot easily and gracefully blend his materials with lively reflections, occasional digressions,

sions, and allusions to human life and character, should not affect to surmount the limits of sober dissertation. — With sincere regret we have also to apprise our readers, that these twenty-five letters treat of certain portions of the class Cryptogamia to the exclusion of others, the *Fungi*, *Fuci*, *Ulve*, and *Conferve* being wholly omitted.

Dr. Sprengel enters on his arduous task by noticing some of the general and prominent characteristics of cryptogamous vegetables. Most of these, though destitute of distinctly developed organs of fructification, are provided with true seeds; which, when spontaneously dispersed, or sown by the hand of man, will germinate, and grow up into plants. Their propagation is at the same time more generally effected by lateral elongation, buds, and different forms of roots. This consideration suggests the conterminous shadings of the three kingdoms of nature; a subject to which we have frequently had occasion to refer, and which the present writer thus curiously illustrates:

‘By means of this mode of propagation, so universal that even the cryptogamous aquatic plants partake of it, this family shows some affinity to the Zoophytes. And, indeed, De Saussure and Vaucher of Geneva have made the interesting observation, that a species of *Conserva*, found on stones, walls, and old wood, as also in fresh water, where it generally forms a thick felt-like texture, may be seen constantly to move in all directions, when exposed to the influence of light and warmth. Vaucher makes it a new genus called *Oscillatoria*, of which twelve species are enumerated in a work lately published by him on the fresh-water *Conferve*. These organic bodies, which are indeed true Zoophytes, consist of infinitely minute, simple filaments, mostly closely annulated, and pointed at one end. They are propagated neither by means of eggs, nor seeds, nor buds, but simply by the separation of the rings. Their movement is by no means a regular one, like the tremulous motion of *Hedysarum gyrans*, for instance, but irregular and changeable, as we usually observe it in the animal kingdom.

‘The transition of one organical kingdom of nature into the other, and the impossibility of separating the two by an exact line of demarcation, becomes still more obvious to those, who, with Needham, Priestley, and Ingenhousz, have observed the metamorphosis of the animalcula in *fusoria* into real *Conferve*. To make this experiment, no particular infusions are required; a vessel filled with pump-water, and exposed to the sun, without being agitated, is sufficient for the purpose. First of all a delicate green covering is seen to be formed on the surface of the water, consisting of numberless and infinitely minute molecules, that manifest animal motion; these, after sometime, disappear, and are transformed into vegetable filaments, which, like all green surfaces of plants, yield oxygen gas, when exposed to the influence of the sun.’

Having



Having briefly adverted to the chemical composition of the different families of cryptogamous plants, the author proceeds, in his second letter, to review the geographical extent and habitations of the ferns. Upwards of five hundred species of this elegant family have been recognized by our modern botanists; and more than one half of them are natives of the West Indies. In the present condition of our planet, their favourite abodes are the islands which lie between the tropics; but the Doctor might have imparted additional interest to this portion of his volume, by indicating the beautiful vestiges of their once flourishing state in more northerly regions of the world; vestiges which we have often contemplated with admiration and delight, and which seem to baffle the inquiries of the most sagacious geologists,

‘On casting a view over our northern regions, we find that Sweden (according to Liljeblad) affords only twenty-seven species, of which *Polypodium hyperboreum*, Sw. (*Acrostichum alpinum*, Lilj.) alone has not yet been found in Germany. Of this latter country the catalogue is rather richer, the number of its Ferns amounting to nearly forty species; but of which *Athyrium alpinum montanum*, *fontanum*, *regium*, *rhaticum*, *Adiantum Capillus*, *Acrostichum Maranta*, *Marsilea quadrifolia*, and *Scolopendrium officinale*, are not met with in the northern parts of Germany. England, on the other hand, on account of its more temperate climate, can boast of a far greater number. *Trichomanes pyxidiferum* (originally a native of the West India islands,) *Hymenophyllum Tunbridgensis*, *Asplenium murinum*, which has also been found in St. Helena and Jamaica; *Aspidium lobatum* and *fragrans*, *Athyrium fontanum*, &c. occur in the Floras of that island. Thus the number of ferns appears to increase in proportion to the greater warmth and humidity of the countries.’

In the three succeeding letters, we are presented with many minute and ingenious observations on the structure and economy of Ferns: but which, especially as they derive occasional illustration from the plates, we cannot stay to detail. We forbear, in like manner, from particularizing the author's proposed arrangement of the Filices, which, in many respects, corresponds with that of Swartz; and which, with the progress of discovery, will probably undergo various modifications. The exposition and discrimination of the genera, and of a few of the more striking species, display much critical acuteness, and fully as much erudition and technical phraseology as we could desire in an elementary treatise.

Between the Ferns, properly so called, and the *Musci frondosi*, Dr. Sprengel ranks the *Pteroides*, or fern-like plants, comprizing *Botrichum*, *Ophioglossum*, *Psilotum*, *Lycopodium*, *Pilularia*,

*Pilularia*, *Marsilea*, *Salvinia*, *Isoetes*, and *Equisetum*; each of which is discussed with discerning and learned brevity.

The Mosses are defined to be 'such cryptogamous plants as bear, on small leafy stems and branches, simple capsules, dehiscent at the top, where they are covered by a peculiar veil or calyptra. Their sexual organs, which may be distinctly seen with the help of a simple lens, consist partly in oblong bud-like gemmæ, supposed formerly to be anthers; and partly in an aggregation of pistils, intermixed with succulent filaments.'—These are among the most minute of frondescient vegetables, the largest species rarely exceeding a foot in length, and several eluding the discernment of the naked eye. A certain degree of moisture is essential to their vegetation: but they are found to thrive in very different kinds of soil, and even in very different degrees of temperature. In general, however, they grow most luxuriantly in morasses, on trees, in shady situations, and on alpine rocks, from the height of 3000 to that of 5500 feet. At this last elevation, and on the confines of eternal snow, may be found *Dicranum strumiferum*, *Encalyptra ciliata*, *Polytrichum alpinum*, *Grimmia cirrhata*, and *Trichostomum fasciculare*; which, in the ascending scale, are succeeded by Lichens.

Dr. Sprengel's observations on the internal structure of mosses confirm the supposition that they consist of a merely cellular substance, without the smallest trace of spiral vessels. This simple and sieve-like texture of the leaves is the cause of their being soaked with so much facility, when dry; and, indeed, *Trichostomum lanuginosum*, *Barbula ruralis*, and many others, on their upper part being merely immersed in water, will become in appearance as fresh as though they were in full vegetation. In other plants, the epidermis of which is furnished with regularly organized apertures, this cannot be effected.—To the same cause we may attribute the revival of the mosses of the Bauhinian herbal, a striking circumstance, which was first noticed (we believe) by Gleditsch. The singular expansion of the tremellæ by rain may, probably, be connected with a similar simplicity of structure.

The much agitated topic of the fructification of mosses appears to have attracted a large share of the Doctor's attention; and, though once a strenuous advocate for the Hedwigian theory, he now very candidly admits the force of the objections to which it is liable. In the course of his investigations, he has arrived at two curious discoveries. Within the young shoots of *Barbula unguiculata*, containing the male flower-buds, he had frequently occasion to observe a number of animals perfectly resembling the vibriones of paste and vinegar. 'Though

‘Though I do not consider these animalcules, (says he,) as instruments of fructification, I have a great desire to know whether, and in what manner, they are connected with the œconomy of the vegetable: for it would be remarkable, even if they are to be reckoned as the enemies of this little plant, since no moss has been hitherto observed to be liable to be attacked by insects or worms.’

Again, the staggering cotyledons of Hedwig, which were described as first *simple* and afterward *branched*, are now found to be the rudiments of a parasitical conferva, which generally infests garden-pots, and appears on the surface of the mould at the same time with the mosses. For the proofs of this ingenious explanation of an apparent anomaly, we must refer to the work; since the passage, in its entire state, would trespass on our unavoidable limits.

The formation and arrangement of the genera belonging to this division of the cryptogamous class are chiefly deduced from characters taken from the capsule, rather than from the parts of fructification; and they are synoptically exhibited in the 21st letter.

The *Musci Hepatici*, an intermediate race between the real mosses and the lichens, form the subject of the 22d letter: but their physiology is still so obscure, that much is left to inference and conjecture. They comprize *Jungermannia*, *Marchantia*, *Antboteros*, *Blasia*, *Targionia*, *Sphaerocarpus*, and *Riccia*.

*Lichens* are next introduced, and are distinguished by their closely compacted fibres, of a cortical substance, without any appearance of the green cellular matter of the mosses. This section obviously admits of a much wider range of observation than Dr. Sprengel has bestowed on it: but his notices, though short, are neither hurried nor inconsiderate; and may furnish matter of interesting meditation to the cryptogamists of every country.

The text of this volume is admirably elucidated by ten coloured plates; and the translator appears to have performed his part with diligence and fidelity.

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ART. XIII. *A short Historical Sketch and Account of the Expenses incurred under the Heads of Civil List, Pensions, and Public Offices; with some Observations on the Conduct of the modern Reformers; in a Letter addressed to a Friend. By the Author of a Letter signed "a Freeholder of Cornwall."* 8vo. pp. 68. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1810.

AFTER a few sarcasms on ‘political reformers,’ this Cornish freeholder proceeds to inform his readers of the various economical

economical retrenchments which have been made during the present reign. At his Majesty's accession, the Civil List consisted of 120,000*l.* a year in money, and of a variety of taxes appropriated to it; with the farther advantage of parliament undertaking to supply any deficiency below 800,000*l.* a year, without demanding an account of any surplus beyond it. This surplus, however, seems, in certain years, to have been considerable; yet his present Majesty, soon after his accession, was pleased to waive his title to it, and to accept the fixed sum of 800,000*l.* a year, directing the incorporation of the Civil List taxes with the general revenue of the country. Since that time, two augmentations of the Civil List have taken place; the first in 1777, to the extent of 100,000*l.* a year; the second in 1804, to the amount of 60,000*l.*; which, with the royal proportion of Exchequer fees, (calculated at 25,000*l.*) makes a total of 985,000*l.* a year. Notwithstanding these augmentations, and the discharge of Civil List arrears, the taxes made over to the public, in lieu of the fixed sum, have so greatly increased in product as to afford a balance of more than five millions in favour of the public, during the course of the present reign. Pensions, which before the well known Civil List Act of 1782, were paid privately, must now be paid openly, and the names of the parties are published. The only exception is that the first Lord of the Treasury may return a pension into the Exchequer without a name, making oath that such pension is not payable to a member of the House of Commons, or for the sake of parliamentary interest. The sums allotted for pensions, as well as for secret service, are limited in their amount. The apportionment of the Civil List, by the latest estimate, was as follows:

1. Royal family, including the privy purses of the King and Queen,	- - - - -	£ 203,500
2. Salaries of the Chancellor, Keeper of the Great Seal, Speaker of the House of Commons, and of the Judges,	- - - - -	32,955
3. Salaries to Ministers at foreign Courts,	- - - - -	70,852
4. Tradesmens' bills for his Majesty's service,	- - - - -	147,200
5. Servants of his Majesty's household,	- - - - -	90,965
6. Pensions in the form of royal bounty,	- - - - -	92,582
Ditto to retired Ambassadors,	- - - - -	8,975
Ditto in lieu of offices abolished,	- - - - -	16,632
7. Salaries to public officers in the law, revenue, exchequer, &c.	- - - - -	81,440
8. Salaries of Ministers and other public officers,	- - - - -	138,476
Total		£ 883,577

In

In comparing the present Civil List with that of King William, we are struck with the superior amount of the latter, in *value* at least, — its money-amount being 700,000*l.* a year. When his present Majesty accepted a fixed sum in lieu of the duties which had been appropriated to the Civil List, and transferred these duties to the general revenue, two sources of royal income were retained; the 4½ per cent. duty from the Leewards Islands, and the crown revenue from Scotland; the latter is about 70,000*l.* per annum. Both are chiefly appropriated to pensions; the former being charged with 31,000*l.*, and the latter with 54,000*l.* annually, on this account.

The pensions and allowances paid out of the Consolidated Fund, or general revenue of the country, consist first of those that are granted to the Prince of Wales and other branches of the royal family, and next of the grants to our eminent commanders and their families. The joint amount of both in 1808, was 282,773*l.* The salaries charged on this fund are principally those of the parliamentary commissioners lately appointed for auditing public accounts, those of some officers of the Mint, and the recent augmentations of the salaries of the Judges. The half-pay and widows' pensions due for services in the Army, Ordnance, and Navy, are paid at the offices of the respective departments. Pensions having been sometimes granted to persons retiring from the public service on the authority of a Treasury minute, or of the office at which they are paid, the House of Commons, to prevent too free an use of this power, passed in 1809 certain resolutions to the following effect; — that a yearly account, shewing the increase or diminution of salaries and superannuations, should be laid before them; that such accounts should be distinct from the estimates of service; that a diplomatic pension should in no case exceed 2000*l.* a year, and should be subject to abatement in case of the receiver holding any other place; that the sales of appointments in courts of law should cease, the Judges being indemnified; that the offices of Registrar of the Admiralty and Registrar of the Court of Appeals should, after the expiration of the present interests, be paid by a salary in lieu of fees; and that a similar regulation should be applied to the offices of Clerk of the Crown and Prothonotary of the King's Bench in Ireland, as well as those of Clerk and Prothonotary of the Common Pleas in that kingdom.

Pensions in compensation for abolished offices date from two periods, — the reform of the Civil List in 1782, and the termination of a separate government in Ireland by the Union. The latter are charged on the Irish revenue, and the former have

have now become inconsiderable. *Sinecure* places comprehend those which are performed by deputy, as well as those which require no service. The payments arise more from fees than from salary. The *Exchequer sinecures* may be computed in all at 60,000*l.* a year; the *sinecures* in courts of justice, including the Admiralty and ecclesiastical jurisdictions, at 70,000*l.*; the *sinecures* in Scotland at 30,000*l.*; and all other *sinecures*, not falling under any of these descriptions, may be estimated at nearly 40,000*l.* a year. The eventual reduction of the *sinecures* in the Admiralty-courts is secured, as above mentioned, by the Resolutions of the last year. In regard to the *Exchequer*, a similar provision was made so far back as 1783, by which the public has already been a great gainer, although many years may elapse before the interests of some of the occupants cease. *Sinecures* are holden under various tenures; some during pleasure; some during good behaviour; others during life, as a freehold; others during two, and some during three lives; and some even hold to them and their heirs. The sources of appointment are also various; many holding by patent from the crown, others under the King's grantee, and again from the grantee of a grantee. In some cases, the appointments appear to have been obtained by purchase, a practice which is openly acknowledged. It was in 1788 that Mr. Pitt's reform of Custom-house *sinecures* took place, and saved to the public above 40,000*l.* per annum; and in 1789, the excessive though casual profits of the Master of the Mint were abolished, and a regular salary of 3000*l.* was granted in their stead.

A fee-fund at a public office is formed by paying into a common stock the fees which had previously gone to separate individuals in the office. The receipt of such fees is the particular business of a clerk, who is guided by a table, specifying the sum that is payable by applicants on each instrument. The fund is employed to defray, without distinction of individuals, the salaries and contingent charges of the establishment. A moderate certainty is thus substituted for an uncertainty; because, before this regulation, each clerk received the very unequal proportion which might happen to arise in his separate department. These funds are of late institution. They have been progressively created at the Treasury, at the offices of the three Secretaries of State, at the Admiralty, the Navy, and the War Office, as well as at the smaller offices; forming in all of them a great deduction from the demand that would otherwise be made on the revenue for salaries. No fee or perquisite can now legally be taken by any public officer for his separate use.

The conclusion, which this writer is anxious to deduce from these various statements, is that Parliament has been much more active in correcting abuses than political reformers are disposed to allow. He argues this point with so much zeal, and at the same time with so many repetitions and circumlocutions, that we cannot doubt his being himself a member of that assembly, in which eloquence is not often accompanied by brevity. That he is not a man of business nor a literary man is apparent from his style, which possesses neither the clearness of the one nor the condensation of the other. The useful part of the pamphlet, by which we mean the part containing facts and arguments, may be compressed into a dozen pages; so that on the score of composition we can find no room for praise. Yet we would not willingly close this comment, without expressing our belief of the writer's candour and sincerity; and adding our opinion that the public suffers much more from the discouragement of improvement, and from the want of method and intelligence, in the management of its pecuniary concerns, than from misplaced patronage or from premeditated embezzlement. Our public offices might borrow many useful rules from the example of our merchants. Had those checks, which exist in a well regulated counting-house, prevailed in our official departments, the delinquencies which have recently alarmed and afflicted the nation would not have occurred.

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ART. XIV. *An Essay on the Theory of Money and Principles of Commerce.* By John Wheatley. Vol. I. 4to. pp. 379. 11. 5s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

ART. XV. *An Essay on the Theory of Money and Exchange.* By Thomas Smith. 8vo. pp. 231. 7s. sewed. Cadell and Davies.

ART. XVI. *The Doctrine of Equivalents; or an Explanation of the Nature, Value, and Power of Money: together with their Application in organizing Public Finance.* By George Crawford, Esq. In two Parts. 8vo. pp. 280. 6s. Boards. Printed at Rotterdam, by Locke and Co.

WE have now before us three writers who are very much at variance with each other; but who agree in severely treating the labours of Dr. Adam Smith, and in imputing to that eminent author material errors and defects in relation to the points of which they respectively treat. If we give credit to Mr. Wheatley, whose work exceeds the two other performances not less in real value than in bulk, all the world has to this day been wholly ignorant of the nature and functions of money, and of the general principles of commerce. However confidently others and ourselves may have thought differently,

and however strongly we may have repelled the imputation, we are now to suppose that we have all been in reality partisans of the mercantile theory; and that even Dr. Smith, who had some faint glimmerings of the true principles of political economy, was unable to maintain them, or to refute the contrary system: while the present author leaves his readers to infer that full and just views of these subjects have been first communicated by himself.

Humiliating as it may be to find that we have thus long imposed on ourselves, still, if it should turn out that we *have* been thus deceived, we trust that we have fairness enough to render justice to the superior powers of discernment and investigation, which have detected the errors that have misled us, and which have brought to light those truths that have eluded our grasp. We propose therefore briefly to examine the grounds on which these high pretensions stand: but we must confess that, on farther consideration, we do not think so favorably of some of Mr. W.'s views as we did when they appeared in their '*Propectus*' form, a few years ago.

In his first chapter, Mr. Wheatley gives an account of the progress and present state of the science, and enumerates and appreciates the services rendered to it by Mr. Hume, Sir James Steuart, and Dr. Adam Smith; on each of whom he concisely pronounces judgment:

'The fundamental principles deducible from Mr. Hume's argument are:

'That all prices are in proportion to the quantity of money.

'That an increase of money is not an increase of wealth.

'And that the value of money is every where on a level.

'But as he examined his subject in too cursory a manner to give to his observations the consistency and precision of a regular inquiry, he frequently drew partial inferences in direct opposition to his general reasoning.

'Though he contended, that an increase of money was not an increase of wealth, as prices were raised in proportion to the augmentation, yet he asserted, that all commercial relations were disadvantageous, which required the efflux of money to support them; and though he argued, that money every where maintained its level, yet he admitted, that one nation might retain a greater relative quantity than another, which is incompatible with the nature of a level.

'He adduced the position, that plenty of money, which, in the spirit of the times, he termed great riches, gave obstruction to trade, by the advance of prices; yet he at the same time contended, that it gave a stimulus to industry—two effects, which are wholly inconsistent with each other. In conformity to these contradictory opinions, he in one place deprecates the increase of currency, and in another approves it. He condemns the circulation of paper, because it causes the increase and recommends the debasement of coin, for the purpose of causing it.'

We



We have not discernment enough to perceive that the propositions, 'that an increase of money is not an increase of wealth,' and 'that all commercial relations are disadvantageous which require the efflux of money to support them,' are necessarily contradictory. Disadvantageous is a relative term, and bears a very large meaning. Had it been said that such commercial relations impoverished, which has been sometimes contended, the assertions would then have been at variance. If, however, we are unable to make out these propositions to be contradictory, one of them is manifestly erroneous: for an increase of money *is*, as much as the increase of any other valuable commodity, an increase of wealth. Because we deny that money is the sole wealth of a nation, it does not follow that we should not admit it to be a part of such wealth, and a very valuable part of it.

Mr. Hume has said, and the fact is incontrovertible, that an increase of money acts temporarily as a stimulus to industry. It is well known that any increase of currency has this effect; and such has always been the case in the first stages even of an undue increase of paper-circulation. Nothing is more satisfactory in Mr. Hume's writings on this subject, than his explanation of this occurrence. Why this admission should be supposed to be contradicted by the following proposition of the same writer, namely, that great riches give obstruction to trade by the advance of prices, we are wholly at a loss to discover. Let us suppose him to have used the term *riches* as synonymous with *money*; where, even then, is the contradiction? Did he not in the one case refer to the first introduction of an increase of money, and did he not in the other allude to its effect when it had become permanent? Even allowing this disadvantage to arise from an increase of money, still benefits flow from such increase which far more than counteract it; as our own experience proves, and as was fully shewn by Dr. Adam Smith, who has exhausted the subject. Had Mr. Wheatley, instead of seeking for a contradiction where none existed, found fault with the *generality* of the latter proposition, he would have had reason on his side.

It must be owned that the *debut* of this author as a critic is not very imposing; and that, if he does not appear to more advantage as a political philosopher, our readers may begin to be apprehensive that he will not realize his pretensions, but that they must, notwithstanding the promise of farther light here held out, be contented with such glimmerings and imperfect views of these subjects as may be derived from Dr. Adam Smith.

Sir James Stewart's Inquiry next passes under this author's review. He quotes Sir James as stating 'that his work was

successive labour of many years passed in travelling through different countries, which he constantly examined with an eye to his own subject; and that he attempted to draw information from all with whom he was acquainted.' Although he does not fairly appreciate the merits of that bulky performance, we agree with him in thinking that 'as his previous proficiency in the science was too limited to enable him to form proper questions, he was incapable of deriving from such an intercourse the full benefit, which it would have otherwise afforded?'—as also that

'It would be wholly repugnant to reason to imagine, that an author, who, from whatever impulse, set out on his travels in quest of information on a subject, of which he had no previous knowledge, and compiled a vast mass of materials from casual observation and vague inquiry, without plan, principle, or system, could have formed into a regular science, which was to be composed without rules, the complicated interests of domestic policy.'

One of the most glaring contradictions in Sir James Steuart's Inquiry is that of its occasionally representing coin as a mere sign, while at other times he considers it as of intrinsic value; a circumstance which is not noticed by the present author.

Mr. Wheatley admits that Dr. Adam Smith perceived the fallacy of the theory of the balance of trade:

'He was sensible that there existed some latent principle which prevented the accumulation of money in any given country, beyond a certain extent; and thence concluded that the theory of the balance of trade, which allowed indefinite augmentation, was inconsistent with truth; and though he never attained to the discovery of this principle, and knew not by what operation the general amount of the currency of different countries was limited, yet the simple knowledge of a restrictive power sufficiently indicated to him the total impracticability of a continual balance.'

The universally recognized title of Dr. Smith, as the founder of a new system of political economy, and as the successful oppugner and subverter of that hypothesis with the partisans of which he is here confounded, render it proper that the present attack made on him should be stated somewhat in detail, and be examined with some particularity.

Mr. W. lays down as positions, which we apprehend he would have us consider as new, that

'The effective principle, which regulates in all countries the amount of their currency, is the action of money in conformity to the purport of its institution as an uniform measure of value. All authors have concurred in attributing to money the properties of being the universal measure of value, and the universal medium of exchange, but none have conceived it to be a necessary result from these properties, that it should be an uniform measure, that the same sum should every where express the same value.'

Next, that 'the characteristic action of money, in conformity to the purport of its institution as an uniform measure, is the sole cause of the limitation of money, and the sole principle which regulates in all countries the amount of their currency.'—He also asserts that, as 'this principle by some inadvertency escaped the observation of Dr. Adam Smith, he was of course incapable of explaining the fundamental tenets of the science, and elucidating the real cause of the limit of money.'

We are not sure that we fully comprehend this mystical language, nor that we rightly conceive the occult properties here stated; and therefore we cannot decide whether Dr. Smith did or did not labour under the ignorance which the author imputes to him. We can only say that the doctrines of Adam Smith, and his explanations of them, are much more on a level with our humble understandings than the discoveries of Mr. Wheatley: but, as far as we are able to make out his meaning, he has said nothing on the present subjects which Dr. Smith had not said before him. The tendency of commerce, when free and unrestrained, to reduce the same commodities, and money among the rest, universally to the same value, has been shewn in a most masterly and satisfactory manner by Dr. Smith; and that this principle applies eminently to money, as being a commodity in greater demand and more easily conveyed than most others, is particularly maintained by the same high authority. If the passages which we have quoted do not go beyond these conclusions, we know not where to look for any new and important discoveries; they will in that case be reduced to some peculiarities of phraseology, which, whether they be more or less apposite and lucid than those of Dr. Smith, we shall beg to submit to the judgment of our readers. If, however, the author asserts that some quality resides exclusively in money as distinguished from other commodities, which, independently of commerce, causes it equally to diffuse itself over the civilized world, and to apply itself equally to all commodities, this will be something original which (we admit) is not to be found in Dr. Smith's works; and then the question will be whether such a position be well founded. No person was ever more impressed than that economist with the tendency of commerce to bring scarcity and abundance to a level, with respect to all commodities in which money is to be included. Does Mr. Wheatley mean any thing beyond this by his 'action of money in conformity to the purport of its institution,' as an uniform measure of value, as causing the limitation of itself, and regulating in all countries the amount of their currency? This brings the matter between him and Dr. Smith to a short issue; which, however, cannot now be de-

cided, because Mr. W. has no where reduced this lofty proposition into plain language, and illustrated it by facts.

Mr. Wheatley enumerates the following as propositions which are supported by Dr. Smith, and with which he quarrels :

‘ 1st. That the quantity of money in every country depends upon the power of purchasing. 2. That it is regulated by the fertility of the mines which supply the commercial world. 3. That it is in proportion to the effectual demand. 4th. That it cannot exceed the sum which is necessary for the purposes of circulation. 5th. That it cannot be accumulated beyond what the nation can afford to employ. 6th. And that when the channel is full, what flows in must run out again.’

That the positions here collected are to be found scattered in Dr. Smith’s work is undoubtedly true, but they do not there hold the rank here given to them as leading propositions ; nor are they there delivered as *distinct* propositions, some of them being in substance almost identical, but are used as different modes of stating the same idea.

For most of the author’s objections to these ideas we must refer to his work, because it would be a waste of time on our part to specify and refute the greater portion of them. We shall notice only one of them. He quotes Dr. Smith as saying “ that the quantity of money can never exceed what the nation can afford to employ, or what the annual produce of its land and labour will allow it to employ ;” ‘ but, (adds Mr. W.) as he does not attempt to explain by what means the sum which it is capable of affording is to be defined, the position is necessarily nugatory from its loose and indeterminate nature.’—Now, is not the sum sufficiently defined, when it is said to be that which the annual produce of the land and labour of a people would employ ? Any more particular definition cannot be necessary. What is it that limits capital in private concerns, but the nature and extent of the concern ? In like manner, the number, nature, and extent of the concerns of a nation limit its capital.—The limit of capital is here preposterously held up as a difficult problem ; whereas nothing is more obvious even to the least informed among those who are acquainted with the details of trade. How often do we hear of those who trade beyond their capital ; and how much more rarely are instances mentioned of persons who employ a superabundant capital ?

Dr. Smith, by considering money as any other valuable commodity, and purchase and sale as mere exchanges, has rendered its nature and functions intelligible to the most ordinary capacity ; while Mr. Wheatley, by departing from this course,  
has

has introduced obscurity into what was before clear, and has left it doubtful whether he be master of the first elements of a science, the boundaries of which he professes to have extended.

In the second chapter, the author treats of the subject of money, and labours to shew that this does not constitute the whole of a nation's wealth; a work of entire supererogation at this day, since the doctrine does not admit of more elucidation than it has received from Dr. Smith: from whom the present author does not differ on this point, except in the use of language which is less precise and perspicuous.

Chapter III. treats of the Course of Exchange.—The course of exchange between countries has been hitherto supposed to depend on the state of the balance of trade between them: but this idea is wholly rejected by Mr. Wheatley, who denies that this balance in any degree affects the state of exchange. His mode of accounting for the fluctuations which prevail in the course of exchange may be collected from what follows:

‘ A bill of exchange is an order for the receipt of a given sum of money in a foreign country, and must therefore be estimated according to the value of money in the country, upon which the order is given, and the value of money in the country where it is presented for sale. If it were practicable, that all countries could at all times accurately employ the same relative amount of currency for the establishment of the same uniform correspondence in price, and the same consequent correspondence in the value of money, the exchange between them would invariably be at par; but the increase of specie, from the fertility of mines, and the general publication of state and bank paper throughout the different countries of the world, the extent of which has hitherto been regulated by no fixed and determinate principle, occasion such a constant variation in the amount of their currencies from the same uniform proportion, and such a constant variation of prices from the same uniform level, that the exchange between them is almost always fluctuating above or below par, for the purpose of rectifying their disproportion, and equalizing the measure of value.

‘ When from either of these causes a partial augmentation of currency should be effected in one country to a greater extent than in another, as a proportionate advance in the price of its produce, and a proportionate reduction in the value of its money, would be the necessary consequence of the addition, the merchants of the two states would easily distinguish, from the average return of the sale of the produce, which they receive and remit, and from the uninterrupted correspondence, which they hold with each other, for the express communication of the current prices, that the same sum, the same specific grains of gold or silver, would no longer continue to express between them the same value. The holder, therefore, of a foreign bill upon the country where no increase had occurred, would

naturally refuse to sell it in the state where the increase took place, unless he could procure the additional price, to which, from the alteration in the measure between them, he was entitled. If he sold it at par, he would sell it at a loss, as the sum drawn for would be worth more than the sum received. It would necessarily, therefore, be advanced in price, and sell at a premium commensurate with the difference. If by a partial augmentation of currency in this country 100l. in London were worth no more than 95l. in Hamburg, as all produce which in Hamburg sold for 95l. would in this country sell for 100l., the holder of a bill upon Hamburg for 95l. would naturally refuse to sell it in the London market for less than 100l., as the investment of its amount in Hamburg produce for importation into this country would, from the superiority of British prices, return 100l.

‘But in the same manner, in which the relative excess of currency occasioned a premium on a foreign bill, a relative scarcity would occasion a discount. If there were a partial diminution in one country to a greater extent than in another, as a less sum must be the measure of value for the same quantity of produce, than in the country where no variation had occurred, a foreign bill would fall in price, and sell as it ought to do, at a discount, because a less sum would be of the same value with a greater in the place, on which it was drawn.’

Mr. W. states his notions on this matter with a precision and distinctness for which we vainly seek in other parts of his work. They are deserving of attention; and they do not depend on any occult quality ascribed to money, nor on any pretended discovery of the author. Admitting the cause which is here assigned to have a principal operation in the fluctuations of exchange, why should it be contended that it solely produces these effects, and why may not the state of the balance of trade be allowed either to enhance or counteract them? This cannot be denied without calling in question the universal and invariable influence of the law of supply and demand, as affecting all objects of traffic.

In the subsequent passage, a clear summary is given of the effects produced by the course of exchange:

‘If the prior reasoning of this chapter be correct, it is manifest that to whatever variety of artifice and ingenuity of speculation a nation may resort to effect a partial variation in the value of money, the course of exchange will not only announce the difference, for the purpose of preventing the inequality that would otherwise ensue in the interchanges of trade, but it will instantly apply the appropriate means to restore the equivalency. If the variation result from an excessive accumulation of specie, the course of exchange will immediately conduce to the removal of the surplus; if from the over-issue of paper convertible at option into specie, the course of exchange will enforce its return upon the banks that uttered it; if from

from the over-issue of paper not convertible at option into specie, the course of exchange will reduce it to a discount in proportion to its excess; if from an alteration in the denomination or purity of the coin, the course of exchange will strike a new par correspondent with the difference, and thus operate in every instance to make the same sum, the same specific grains of gold or silver, measure in all the same value. It constitutes, therefore, the practical means by which money is enabled to discharge its functions with fidelity over the whole world as an uniform measure of value.'

In chapter IV., the author applies the same principle to account for the differences between the prices of bullion and of coin.

Mr. Wheatley truly observes that the fluctuation of the market-price of money, above and below its mint-price, occasioned much perplexity to the statesmen of the last century. He also observes that

'As a general tendency to a relative excess of currency in this country occasioned a constant inclination in the market price to a superiority above, rather than an inferiority below the mint price; and as pending the excess there was much discontent from the melting of the coin, they directed their attention more to account for the superiority, than to account for the fluctuation, and took little pains to investigate how far the reasoning which they adduced to explain the advance above the mint price, was equally competent to explain the depression below it.'

He farther remarks;

'The two leading causes, which they assigned for the excess, were, the debased state of the coin, and the inaccuracy of the mint proportions. The debased state of the coin was assigned as one of the principal causes, because if the coin were below the mint standard, if 3*l.* 17*s.* 10½*d.* in the gold coin, and 5*s.* 2*d.* in the silver coin did not in reality contain an ounce, it would be wholly inconsistent with reason to suppose that any person possessed of an ounce would sell it for such a sum—an additional price must be given proportionate to the difference: but that if so much coin intrinsically contained an ounce, the market price would necessarily be reduced to a correspondence with the mint price, as it was naturally conceived that an equal quantity of metal, whether in coin or bullion, of a similar purity, must necessarily be of a similar value.'

It doubtless is difficult to imagine what solid objection can be urged against the conclusion with which the last quotation closes; we must, however, admit to this author that

'With whatever plausibility such an argument might be used to support the existence of a fixed and uniform excess above the mint price, it was but little appropriate to account for an inferiority below it, which though less frequent, sometimes occurred. It could not be contended, that when no one would sell an ounce of pure silver

silver for 5s. 2d., because that sum, in the attenuated state of the coin, did not contain an ounce, every one would be desirous of selling it for 4s. 11d. or 5s., which contained still less.'

The next passage conveys a short account of the writer's mode of accounting for the occurrences which are the subject of this chapter :

' I attempted in the preceding chapter to prove, that when the level of money was partially disturbed, that when this country employed a greater relative currency than others, and caused the same sum to measure a less value than it measured in others, the course of exchange would mark the variation by a proportionate premium on foreign bills in our market, and a proportionate discount on our bills in the markets abroad. It would shew, therefore, that a greater quantity of our coin must be given for a smaller quantity of foreign coin by the whole amount of the premium, and that a smaller quantity of foreign coin could purchase a greater quantity of our coin by the whole amount of the discount ; foreign coin, therefore, would be dear in our market, and our coin would be cheap in foreign markets. But foreign coin and bullion are convertible terms : any given weight of bullion, therefore, would in this country be superior in value to the same weight of coin by the whole amount of the premium on a foreign bill, in addition to the charge of transit ; and any given weight of bullion would in other countries be inferior in value to the same weight of coin by the whole amount of the discount on an English bill, exclusive of the charge of transit.'

In the fifth chapter, Mr. W. examines the late Lord Liverpool's Letter to the King on the Coins of the Realm, and renders liberal justice to it, while he points out the leading errors of the noble author, and shews the inefficacies of some of the remedies which he proposed. The principle of the *reductio ad absurdum* is well applied, in the subsequent passage, to the system of the balance of trade ; when, alluding to the principles on which this system proceeds, Mr. W. says :

' If these principles were self-evident, there is no mine, however productive, that could supply the necessary stores for the balances that are claimed by the different nations of the world. One country claims a balance of 14,800,000l., another of five millions, another of three, and the others of two and one, to the aggregate amount of nearly 40,000,000l. annually : and as all asserts their commerce to be favourable, it is obvious that their collective balances must be paid by a continual influx of bullion from the mine correspondent with their amount ; but the annual produce of the mines of the world does not exceed 7,000,000l.'

In chapter VI., the reader will meet with sensible observations and just reasoning on the subject of the quantity of specie in this country ; which the author considers, perhaps



haps erroneously, as not exceeding five millions.—In the seventh chapter, he refutes the theory of the balance of trade; and in the eighth, is investigated the subject of our foreign expenditure. The view which Mr. W. gives of this question withdraws from the theory of the balance of trade its very foundation.

Here and in other parts of the work, Mr. Wheatley speaks of compressing our currency, as if it were an innocent operation, and as if its sole effect would be to give to the course of exchange a turn in our favour; and he seems not to be aware that this is a measure which, although often salutary, and sometimes indispensibly necessary, should be adopted with great caution, because it is uniformly attended with much private inconvenience. It perhaps ought rarely to be put in practice except when necessity dictates, and should not be carried beyond the extent of that necessity. We therefore disapprove the measures and interferences for this purpose, which are recommended in the present volume; and in which the author, who is so decided an enemy to the old theory, falls into the inconsistency of adopting its most obnoxious parts. In nothing, we apprehend, has the *modern* a greater advantage over the *antient* theory, than in consecrating the maxim that governments act most for the interest of their subjects by leaving commerce to itself; yet in opposition to this axiom, Mr. Wheatley would have laws enacted 'not only to deprive a certain proportion of the banks of the privilege of uttering paper, but to restrict those, invested with the power, from publishing any note below a given value.' The same writer bestows unqualified commendations on a plan which it was the intention of Lord Grenville to have established, had he continued longer in power; by which 'the Bank of England, and the provincial banks, should, at the expiration of three months from a given period, call in their one pound notes, at the expiration of three months more their two pound notes, and at the expiration of three months more their five pound notes; no note being eventually left in circulation below the value of ten pounds.' Here Mr. Wheatley even goes beyond his Lordship, since he would have no notes circulate for sums less than 15l.; and so impatient is he to have the smaller notes banished from circulation, and their places filled up by coin, that he would not wait for a period of peace to introduce the change, but would have it commenced immediately. We hope that Lord Grenville is of a somewhat different opinion on this subject; and we would ask Mr. Wheatley, how and from what quarter we are so speedily to procure this mass of coin, where it now lies hoarded, and how

we are to realize it? At least, let us have satisfactory answers to these questions before this reform is begun.

Important as are some faults with which Mr. Wheatley's book is chargeable, and objectionable as we deem most of the practical measures which it recommends, still the facts which it contains, the laudable spirit of inquiry which it breathes, and the disposition to serve the interests of the public which it manifests, intitle it to every reasonable indulgence. Many points are here touched, which the author is very capable of discussing and elucidating. Should he deem it proper farther to devote his time and abilities to subjects of this nature, we take the liberty of advising him to treat his predecessors with more respect, to make himself better acquainted with their labours before he criticises them, and to cultivate a more simple style, as being the best fitted for investigations of this kind.

We turn now to the other performances of which the titles stand at the head of this article.

Mr. Smith, like Mr. Wheatley, is dissatisfied with the researches of all his predecessors on the subject of money; and the ensuing quotation will inform our readers of the discovery which he supposes that he has made :

‘ The great mistake into which, it is conceived, the writers upon money have fallen, is, that they have not gone deep enough for a foundation whereon to rear their speculations. Finding that gold and silver had, in all ages, been employed as the circulating medium, and that the quantity of these in a coin was always equal, or nearly equal, to the value it passed for, they concluded, that these metals were the “ standards of value ;” and, therefore, they have employed all their labours and skill, in vain endeavours to reconcile the different phenomena of money to this idea ; and this they did, although, at the same time, they allowed that the metals themselves varied in value ; consequently, they ought to have seen the absurdity of attempting to establish any article of variable value, “ the invariable standard of value ;” and should, therefore, have sought for some other. Had they only examined a little farther, they must have discovered, that, in every country, there exists another standard of value, a nominal, or imaginary, one, of which the coins, passing in circulation, are only symbols or tokens ; and which standard, from its nature, is perfectly invariable.

‘ The nature of this standard may, at once, be explained by a quotation from Montesquieu, who says, “ the Blacks, on the coast of Africa, have a sign purely ideal for fixing the value of their commodities ;—when they wish to make an exchange of them, they say, such an article is worth three macutes, such another is worth five macutes, and such another ten ; and yet a macute can neither be seen, nor felt ; it is entirely an abstract term, and not applicable to any

any sensible object. Is it a coin? Is it a token? Is it a measure? It is neither a coin, a token, nor a measure, for they do not exchange their merchandize for three, five, or ten macutes, but for some article worth the same number of macutes." This is an exact description of what is meant by an imaginary standard, and it also shews that such a standard is to be found, even in uncivilized nations, where the use of coins is not known. Indeed, it is conceived, that without it, little or no intercourse could be carried on betwixt man and man; because all value being comparative, it would be impossible for mankind, especially in the present improved state of society, to make the daily exchanges of property, without assuming some fixed point, upon which to found their calculation of the value of each article. The only difference to be observed betwixt the practice of these Blacks, and that of civilized nations, is, that, in place of actually giving one commodity for another, the latter employ sensible objects, as tokens or symbols of the ideal sign, and which, by mutual agreement, are passed from hand to hand, in exchange for those commodities, at certain fixed values.'

Aided by this discovery, Mr. Smith travels over much of the same ground with Mr. Wheatley: but the two authors see and represent the same objects in a very different light. Mr. W. is in the utmost haste to have the restriction on the Bank taken off, and all the inferior payments made with coin alone, while Mr. Smith is of quite an opposite opinion, and lays it down

'That gold is the proper medium to be employed in the early ages of any nation when the people are rude and uncultivated—paper in those that are highly civilized.

'In rude and barbarous countries, every man is afraid and jealous of his neighbour; he therefore will not part with his property unless he receives an equivalent of exactly the same value; thus gold is there essentially requisite. When a man receives gold, he knows that he has got an article that will bring him nearly the same value in all quarters of the world, and so he is sure that, for the property he parted with, he has got value which he retains in his possession, and of which he cannot be deprived without violence;—to this man paper money would be of no value.

'But, in a country where public confidence and credit abound, and whose political existence depends, in a great measure, upon their cultivation, paper money is found of the most essential benefit.

'In this country, paper money appears to answer all the purposes of internal circulation, equally with gold, and in the following particulars to have the advantage of it.

'1st. The intercourse carried on in Great Britain is now so great and extended, and the daily interchange of property so vast, that it would be impossible for it to go on, at least without very great inconvenience, with the assistance of gold coin alone, without the intervention of paper. This has been pointed out, and most ably illustrated by Mr. Thornton, who had personal access to know the facts.

facts. It is therefore conceived necessary only to mention it here, without enlarging upon it.

2dly. Although gold coin may be, and is advantageously employed in the lesser interchanges of society, yet even there, it is subject to an inconveniency, from which paper money is free; that is, the being liable, whenever the balance of foreign payments run against the country, to be carried off to assist in paying that balance of payments. This has already been shown to be the case, and there is little doubt that, if paper currency had not been ready to supply the deficiency, the want of circulating medium, proceeding from this cause, would have been several times severely felt in this country during the last twenty years.

3dly. But what appears to be the greatest disadvantage attending the use of gold, as a circulating medium, is its great expence. In a commercial state, a strict attention to œconomy is at all times requisite; when, therefore, an article of little or no comparative value can supply the place of one of great value, it certainly ought to be preferred, although attended with some inconvenience; but if that article of no value supplies the place of the other most completely, it would be madness in the extreme to find fault with, or refuse to use it; more especially when the pressure of the times calls so imperiously for the strictest œconomy in all points.—

Paper money having been shown to be superior to gold, in many cases, for the great internal circulation of this country, it is conceived unnecessary to enlarge upon the propriety of its being continued in that capacity, and supported therein by every proper assistance that government, or the public in general, can give it.

Although the arguments, that have been employed in this work, have been exclusively applied to the notes of the national Banks of England and Ireland, yet it must be evident that, in general, they may be equally well applied to the notes of all the private banks of the three kingdoms; the notes being issued exactly on the same principles, and the banks following the same rules. And there is no doubt that these private banks have been of very great service to the country in general; indeed, it is conceived, that the vast and unexampled extension of the manufactures and commerce of Great Britain, during the last hundred years, has been, in a great degree, owing to the introduction of paper money, and increase of banks and banking.—These private banks are therefore fully entitled to a share of public support.

This, however, is viewing the argument on one side only.

Mr. Crawford, as well as the two other gentlemen, claims the merit of having made discoveries, and is not less dissatisfied than they are with his predecessors. If we rightly understand him, he has discovered that the increase of specie has not diminished its value; that such increase has a directly contrary tendency; and that the value of money is only to be ascertained by the interest which it produces. Mr. Crawford undertakes to shew the fallacy of Dr. Adam Smith's ideas in these parts of his Inquiry,

‘ Which attempt to prove, that the natural price of every commodity increases by the greater abundance of the precious metals, which is to say, in other words, “ *that gold and silver, from the circumstance of their greater relative abundance compared with other objects, lose in their comparative value with those objects.*”

‘ I cannot indeed deny, that the precious metals have lost in their value within this century ; but this appears only in the decreased rate of interest, which constitutes their *real* and I may say *only* price.

‘ It is not less true, that the price or specific value in the precious metals, which is really due to almost every commodity, has been much increased during the same period ; but the accumulation of taxes on *various* objects, and their extensive influence over *all* the necessities of life, easily explain the cause of this enhanced value, without having recourse to the increased quantity of money, which must infallibly have produced the contrary effect, if that accumulation of taxes had not taken place.

‘ There would indeed be a *great impropriety of expression* in saying, that the fluctuating specific value in money of different objects, should be considered as the price of the metals ; because experience sufficiently demonstrates, that this fluctuation in value is for ever partial, and nowise uniform on all objects, which precludes the possibility of applying it to indicate a change in the general medium called money ; neither can the metals, when representing every object, be considered in any other light, than as a *measure or equivalent*, of which more or less is *ultimately* required for the production of each object, from a combination of causes, that are to be traced in this work.

‘ The necessity of making this distinction between the interest of of money *as its price*, and the specific quantity of it due to each object, when exchanged for money, *as its measure*, will, from the nature of the investigation, appear in a very conspicuous point of view ; as well as that of the further distinction which I shall make between the causes of such specific value, when they are entirely independent of all taxation, and when they are combined with it ; in order to shew, in the clearest possible manner, the mode in which the rise and fall of interest affect ultimately the price of every object.’

He states the object of his work to be ‘ to examine the primitive and immutable causes of the different degrees of value attached to every object ; the principles which regulate that specific quantity of the precious metals, to which all things are entitled ; the means, by which those proportions are always kept up ; and the origin of the multiplication of objects in each class of industry.’ One of the main practical improvements, to which the discoveries of this writer have conducted him, is the utter inexpediency and injurious tendency of the sinking fund.

Mr. S.’s turn of thinking on the subjects which he discusses may be conjectured from the following extract :

‘ Having

‘ Having now fully combated the delusive ideas of those who support sinking fund systems, in every point of view in which the subject can be presented, it behoves me to add a few words on the imaginary consequences of an ever-increasing debt, and of the supposed difficulty of finding money to support it.

‘ I have already stated, that there exists, in practice, a mode of raising money on annuities for 65 or 70 years, which create no greater charge of interest than perpetuities, and become extinguished without any reimbursement.

‘ Had that mode therefore been solely adopted for 100 years past, we should at present only be burthened with the annuities created during the last 65 or 70 years, and have an annuity falling annually into the public Treasury, upon which a new annuity for 65 or 70 years might be annually and perpetually granted, while we should enjoy, unincumbered, the natural increase in the yearly produce of existing taxes, as a collateral resource and security against future events.

‘ No situation in finance could be more enviable, and the financial machine might then be said to revolve upon its own axis, formed by taxes levied on the national industry and prosperity during 65 or 70 years, with the additional security of a further increase in the produce of those taxes from increasing prosperity, promising thus eternal duration without further burdens.’

Although annuities for 65 or 70 years create no greater charge of interest than perpetuities, yet, if monied men will not so readily accept the former as the latter, the system of the author, however inviting, becomes a mere illusion.

Those persons who have a turn for inquiries of this nature may not regard the time taken up in perusing the tracts before us as thrown away, since they will meet in all of them with important facts, and considerable displays of ingenuity: but, with the exception of some parts of Mr. Wheatley’s performance, they furnish no material addition to the stock of our knowledge; and, though they all agree in depreciating the labours of Dr. Smith, and each in setting a high value on his own, we apprehend that on the latter point they will not obtain the suffrages of the public, nor even those of each other: while their criticisms and animadversions on the *Inquiry into the Wealth of Nations* will have no other effect on competent judges, than that of heightening in their estimation the luminous discussions, and the cautious and well-weighted conclusions of its incomparable author.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For APRIL, 1810.

## POLITICS.

Art. 17. *Review of the Conduct of the Allies*, with Observations on Peace with France. 8vo. pp. 55. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1810.

THIS author presents us with a detail of the principal occurrences since 1793, and takes occasion to shew the various opportunities which have been afforded to Great Britain for avoiding a continuance of war. His style is easy and fluent, and his sentiments are liberal; but their chief fault is the want of novelty. He has carried his researches much farther than ordinary politicians, but not so far as the subject might admit. He understands the manner in which war dissipates the resources of a country, and he knows that, by making peace, we shall terminate a source of exhaustion: but he does not seem to be impressed with an adequate conception of the re-animating power of peace. He appears to be unconscious of that most important truth, that, in a season of peace, an industrious community makes a regular, an annual, addition to its political strength, by rapidly accumulating those treasures which form the aliment of its armies and navies in the hour of pressure.

One of the best passages in the pamphlet is that (page 47.) in which the writer treats of the independence of Spanish America. By proclaiming the policy of this independence, Bonaparte, he remarks, has done what Great Britain ought to have done long since; and he cautions us as well against delaying the grant of this independence, as against hurrying into a quarrel with the United States. Another very judicious observation, though rarely made, is that Bonaparte will gain no real accession of strength by the subjugation of Spain. The Spaniards have had, in all ages, a rooted antipathy to the French; and, aggravated as this antipathy is by the atrocity of the recent usurpation, no attempts at conciliation will be successful in accomplishing a virtual union of the two countries. Nothing can overcome, in the breast of the Spaniard, the resentment which has been excited by the humiliation imposed on his country by subjecting it to a foreign yoke;—nothing can annihilate, among that honourable people, the detestation of the perfidy by which their king was inveigled and their country enslaved. Insurrections and assassinations on the one part, with military tyranny on the other, will render Spain an incubrance instead of an acquisition to its possessor.

The substance of the author's concluding argument is that Bonaparte is tired of the war; that he would offer us much more favourable terms than the British public have been taught to expect; and that war has owed a great part of its popularity among us to the inflammatory artifices of the individuals who were and are gainers by it.—He is a writer of considerable ability, and will not fail to gain attention, if he be careful to add originality of thought to those attractions of style which he already possesses.

**Art. 18.** *Observations on the Documents laid before Parliament, including the Evidence heard at the Bar on the Subject of the late Expedition to the Scheldt.* 8vo. pp. 158. 5s. Ridgway. 1810.

Our unfortunate Scheldt expedition is here treated under three heads,—its plan and outfit,—the mode of its execution,—and the temporary retention of Walcheren. In the first of these divisions, the opinions of Sir David Dundas and other officers are given; and, while Ministers are severely censured for acting directly in opposition to them, the author ridicules the too sanguine calculations of Sir Home Popham, the only officer who did not dissuade from the enterprise. The elements have been accused as the cause of failure: but this writer maintains that, even had the wind continued fair, and had our army been early landed at Santvliet, the attempt on Antwerp must have been unsuccessful. In this we think he goes too far: but he comments, (p. 82.) with a rigour which is unfortunately too just, on Lord Chatham's ignorance of matters that were the most essential to the success of the undertaking: since it is now notorious that his Lordship had never seen a plan of Antwerp, was unacquainted with the situation of the docks, and knew not whether they were or were not commanded by the citadel. In a subsequent passage, the author directs a merited and pointed censure on Ministers for giving this appointment to a General, who had never but once been in a field of action, and then in a subordinate capacity;—who was formerly removed from office by his own brother, either for indolence or incapacity, and who had never since redeemed his character by any exertion, political or military. Under the third head, viz. the retention of Walcheren, the mismanagement of the medical board, and the improbability of our defending that island, are considered at great length.—The pamphlet contains many unpleasant truths, and the writer supports his argument with considerable ability, though not with so happy a brevity as we find in the tract which we next offer to the consideration of our readers, namely,

**Art. 19.** *A Notice of the Evidence given in the Committee of the House of Commons, during the Inquiry into the Conduct and Policy of the late Expedition to the River Scheldt. With Observations.*—The whole intended to facilitate and elucidate a just and clear View of the Matters in Discussion. 8vo. pp. 51. 2s. 6d. Bickert and Porter.

The author of this clear and condensed production is avowedly a friend to ministers, and we have little doubt, from certain peculiarities of expression, that he is a member of the profession of the law. His work however, is, liable to two objections; it contains some (as we think) very unmerited encomiums on our Cabinet, and it abounds with too nice shades and distinctions of argument. In other respects, it has great merit, and will be found a perspicuous and able summary of the most interesting facts that are scattered over the thousand folio pages which form the mass of evidence on the Walcheren Inquiry. In the parliamentary discussions consequent on national disappointments, it has been the practice of our Oppositions to concenter all accusations



against the Ministers, and to pass slightly over the faults of the Commanders; and in the present Inquiry, Lord Chatham personally was too much spared.

Greatly as we disapprove the conduct of Ministers, both in the conception and the arrangement of the expedition, it is due to impartiality to advert to several proceedings of the most unfortunate tendency which were entirely beyond their controul. The delay in passing Flushing with the men of war till the 11th and 14th of August was of that description; and also the abandonment of the attack on Cadzand. In arguing, as some do, against the chance of success, under any circumstances, it should be kept in mind that, at Santvliet the casualties of navigation might have terminated; and that, had due celerity been used, the army alone might have achieved, in part at least, the destruction of the French shipping. We found this opinion on several grounds; on the speed with which our army shewed itself capable of advancing. Sir John Hope having marched as far as Bats by the 2d of August; on the imperfect state of defence at Antwerp; on the advantage always possessed by assailants; and on the singular aptitude of our soldiers for vigorous enterprise and close action. Our objections to the expedition in the beginning arose less from an apprehension of its failure, than from a conviction of the inadequacy of the result to the expence, even in case of complete success. When, however, we learned the choice of the Commander, we confess that the dread of failure became blended in our minds with the insufficiency of the object.

The weakest part of this pamphlet is an attempt to defend Ministers for the temporary retention of Walcheren; — a retention which no reflecting person, who is acquainted as we happen to be with the locality of the island, would deem worth the great expence with which it must unavoidably be accompanied.

ART. 20. *Thoughts on the Resolutions to be moved on Monday, March 26; in the House of Commons, by Lord Porchester.* 8vo. pp. 26. 2s. Becket and Porter. 1810.

This also is a ministerial vindication, but not couched in the pithy style of the preceding pamphlet. The defence of the naval part of the Expedition rested fundamentally on the change of wind, which obliged our shipping to anchor on the east instead of the west side of the island of Walcheren: but it belongs to professional men only to determine whether this was necessary in the first instance, and whether it ought to have continued so long. It is in this pamphlet that we have first seen the measure arraigned; and the blame is clearly, though not directly, imputed to Sir Home Popham: who, it is said, was found on trial to know less of the local navigation than he had given reason to expect.

Much bold assertion and vague reasoning appear in this pamphlet. We have generally understood that the vote of the House of Commons in favour of the Walcheren Expedition was at variance with the public hope and expectation: but this writer takes a different side, and very liberally ascribes the conduct of the ministerial members to 'good sense and firmness.' He terms the expedition a 'great, politic, and indispensable public measure — executed as far as circum-

stances permitted, with a full and perfect success, and happily desisted from at a precise and necessary crisis, with a *rare prudence and fortitude*, above the fear and influence of popular impression or factious clamour and invective—a prudence and a fortitude which entitle the Government which instructed, and the commanders who complied, to the highest rank of public gratitude and esteem!’ He is equally bountiful of commendation to Ministers on other grounds, such as the conquests in the West Indies, the successful battles in Portugal, the *victory* of Copenhagen, the demolition of the French squadron in Basque Roads, and the exertions in favour of the Spaniards.

Art. 21. *Brief Remarks on the public Letter of Sir Richard Strachan and the Narrative of the Earl of Chatham.* 2d Edition. 8vo. 2s. Becket and Porter.

A warm advocate of Lord Chatham here contends that the public letter of Sir Richard Strachan, of the 27th of August, rendered the narrative of the Earl a measure of allowable self-defence; and that, as the Admiral had thus exculpated himself to the Admiralty who sent him, the General had a right to justify his conduct to the King, from whom his commission was derived. It is insinuated that *intrigue* was exerted to render Sir Home Popham a *managing man* in the expedition, and that Sir R. S. was in some degree made the tool of the former. Both these gentlemen, therefore, but especially Sir Home, are the subjects of the writer’s *vituperation*; and he supports his friend Lord C. rather by his attack on these Naval officers, than by any real arguments or new matters of fact which bear on the General’s conduct. Sir R. Strachan’s public letter above mentioned, and his private letter to the Earl, of the same date, are placed in contrast; and they certainly exhibit differences which it is not our business to accommodate. The public are now, we believe, as sick of the expedition, as the poor fellows were who composed it; especially since the House of Commons has determined that all was right, in the midst of disappointment and disaster. After this, the ministry must surely be as invulnerable by *Despair*, as the country must be inaccessible to *Hope*.

Art. 22. *The Substance of a Speech delivered by Joseph Marryat, Esq.* in the House of Commons, on the 20th February 1810, on Mr. Manning’s Motion for the Appointment of a Select Committee to consider of the Act of the 6th of George I.; and of our present Means of effecting Marine Insurances. Published by the Special Committee at Lloyd’s. 2d Edition. 8vo. pp. 40. 2s. Richardson.

The application to Parliament, for the establishment of a new Shipping Insurance Company, has excited much attention, being for the most extensive undertaking of the kind that was ever brought forwards in this country. Considerable misapprehension has also existed, in regard to the nature of the petition; the public being accustomed to consider an appeal to parliament as equivalent to a demand of exclusive privileges. The laws of England make every individual partner in a joint concern liable for the partnership debts, to the last shilling of his property, whether actually invested in the business or not; and in the formation of a great trading-company, it is requisite

requisite to go to Parliament for a special exception from the general law, in favour of the Company in question, without which the proprietors of the joint stock would be responsible to the extent of their whole fortunes. The object of the exception is to confine their responsibility to the amount of their respective subscriptions; and it is this limitation of hazard, not the possession of any exclusive advantage, which is sought on the present occasion.—London already possesses two Shipping-Insurance Companies, the Royal Exchange and the London Assurance, both established in 1721; and the object of the petitioners is to add a third to the number.

Mr. Marryatt has long been known at Lloyd's as an insurer, and has of late years appeared in the political world as a parliamentary speaker. This publication, therefore, is the speech of a man on the objects of his own profession, and is intitled to more attention than the diffuse and obscure productions which often issue from St. Stephen's chapel. It is one proof among many of the truth of a remark of Mr. Hume, that the language of real business is always clear; and it may be advantageously contrasted with other discourses by the same gentleman on the Orders in Council; a subject with which he did not seem to be so fully acquainted. He informs us that the number of Underwriters at Lloyd's amounts to fifteen hundred; that the property annually insured against sea-risk in this country is nearly two hundred millions; and that such is the extent of business transacted at Lloyd's, that, of this immense sum, not a twenty-fifth part is covered by the two Companies. These Companies confine themselves to what is called "regular risks," but never undertake to cover voyages out of the ordinary track, or attended with hazard of seizure from hostile decrees. Now, in the present state of Europe, these "irregular risks" have become very numerous, it being almost impracticable to convey our merchandise to the Continent by avowed channels. Hence, says Mr. Marryatt, the superior advantage to the public from private insurers, since they second national enterprise by running any risk whatever for which the shipper is willing to pay an adequate premium. This argument, however, goes properly no farther than to shew that irregular risks do not come within the scope of a joint company, but of individual underwriters, because these risks are not reducible to the general rules by which every prudent association will direct its proceedings; and because particular cases, resting on their special merits, can be appreciated only by an individual acting for himself. It is common at Lloyd's to take irregular risks at an under-premium, for the sake of obtaining regular risks at an advantageous premium; and the great complaint against the new company is, that it will withdraw the *bonus* for hazardous business:—the plain answer to which is, that, if the *bonus* be withdrawn, the rate of premium on irregular risks must be raised.

The capital of the proposed association is to be five millions, of which one million only is to be paid down. The present subscribers are men of undoubted respectability; but, as they may sell their shares, it is possible that they may be succeeded, in part at least, by persons of a different stamp. Under this impression, Mr. Marryatt starts a question which seems to us to be deserving of serious consid-

deration : viz. in the case of a great public calamity, the losses of the company might exceed their five millions of capital : but, the proprietors not being responsible for more, a loss might accrue to the assured, without the means of redress from their debtors. In a subsequent part of his speech, he dwells on the injury which is likely to be caused to insurance brokers and underwriters ; men who have devoted their lives to attain a knowledge of their professions. We are by no means disposed to make light of this consideration ; it is true that, at all times, private must give way to public advantage ; but it should never be forgotten that, in a country in which occupations are so much divided and subdivided, and persons are in the habit of confining themselves to the acquisition of a single branch and of remaining ignorant of all others, to render necessary a change of profession is a very serious hardship. Fortunately, the evil in this case is not likely to be extensive. because the business withdrawn will probably bear a small proportion to that which will remain. Insurance in former times was a distinct occupation : but it has become common among merchants of late years to exchange risks at Lloyd's to a great extent among each other, and thus to make a business of underwriting. Persons so circumstanced are not likely to secede from Lloyd's ; and we are disposed to think that the principal subscribers to the Marine Insurance Company will consist of those merchants who have not hitherto studied to derive a profit from underwriting.

Our laws discourage the practice of a merchant acting as an underwriter to his correspondents, and direct that, if, instead of effecting insurance, he take the risk on himself, he shall be liable for eventual loss without a title to the premium in any case. This enactment proceeds from a salutary jealousy of the union of the situations of agent and principal, by which an agent becomes liable to have an interest contrary to that of his employer. Mr. Marryatt apprehends that this contrariety of interest may be excited by the new establishment, and that merchants concerned in the Marine Insurance Company may pay that body higher premiums than they ought, at the expense of their correspondents : but it should be considered that it generally is a merchant's chief interest to satisfy and benefit his correspondents ; and that, whatever strength there may be in this argument, its force will apply more directly to those among merchants who already make a business of underwriting at Lloyd's. — On the whole, therefore, although we are disposed to acknowledge considerable weight in several of Mr. Marryatt's arguments, we regard the Marine Insurance Company as likely to be productive of national advantage. In common with other public undertakings, its profits will probably be over-rated, and its stock advanced to a high premium. For one person in trade who forms a deliberate estimate of profit by close calculation, twenty give a loose rein to their fancies without any calculation : a disposition of which " the knowing ones " are well skilled in taking advantage, by selling out at the moment of fervent expectation. — It deserves to be considered whether this stock be not likely to fall in value at a peace.

Art. 23: *Two Letters* : the First containing some Remarks on the Meeting held 5th November 1809, to celebrate the Acquittal of Messrs.

*Messrs. Hardy, J. H. Tooke, Thelwall, and others, in November 1794; with an Abstract of the Facts proved on those Trials; and also of the Confession of James Watt, executed at Edinburgh for High Treason in October 1794. The Second containing a short comparative Sketch of our practical Constitution in ancient Times and the present; with some Observations on certain Assertions made by the modern Reformers. By a Freeholder of Cornwall.* 8vo. pp. 57. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1810.

Of this 'Freeholder of Cornwall,' we have already mentioned another production, in a preceding part of this Review. (p. 413—417.) We took occasion at that time to animadvert on the verbosity of his composition; and we cannot compliment him, on the present occasion, with having made any improvement. The title-page is in a suitable style to the body of the pamphlet, which is replete with preambles, circumlocutions, and prolix enumerations. On travelling through this labyrinth of words, which is evidently the composition of a parliamentary speaker, we cannot help congratulating the public on having access, by the newspapers, to the matter and substance of the long-winded harangues which are daily uttered in our national councils, without the penalty of reading them at their original length.

The first of these two letters recapitulates the most reprehensible of the steps taken by the democrats of 1792 and 1793, and condemns the public commemoration of their acquittal by the Meeting of last November. A detail of the proceedings of 1792 and 1793 is necessarily a beaten topic, and can be interesting only to the few who are not already apprized of the circumstances of that period. The subject of the second letter, namely a comparative sketch of the present and the past practice of our Constitution, might, in able hands, be rendered equally attractive and instructive: but this Cornwall Freeholder attempts not to soar higher than a comparison of one statute with another. Instead of commenting on the nature of that state of society which holds a middle rank between barbarism and civilization, he reposes the weight of his arguments on an obscure Act of the 8 Henry VI. c. 7. We are aware that specific references are necessary in certain points: but that publication cannot fail to be dry and uninteresting, which contains scarcely any thing else. Besides, we expect more than mere technicality from a writer who sets out with professing (page 33.) to examine the comprehensive question, 'what are the rights possessed by our ancestors which we of the present day are deprived of?' With all his opposition, however, to a reform in Parliament, he declares himself to be a zealous friend to constitutional liberty.

Art. 24. *State of the Foreign Affairs of Great Britain for the Year 1809.* By Gould Francis Leckie, Esq. 8vo. pp. 34. 2s. Chapple.

Mr. Leckie's 'Historical Survey of our foreign Affairs' was noticed at considerable length in our Number for July last; and he here resumes a course of reasoning similar to that which he before pursued. The substance of his political advice is to oppose France, not by adhering to the support of weak and superannuated governments, but by revolutionizing those governments, and giving them

all the vigour of new states. We perfectly agree with him that our efforts for the common cause have often been weakened by the feeble hands which have guided the forces of our allies: but, after an unavailing contest of seventeen years, we must acknowledge ourselves little disposed to join in recommending a renewal of warfare, in conjunction with other nations, in any mode whatever. Mr. Leckie prognosticated that, as soon as Bonaparte had accomplished the reduction of Spain, he would again turn his arms on Austria: but the fulfilment of this prophecy is delayed at least, by the tender tie which ambition has recently bound in the name of love. He dwells at great length on the danger that threatens us on the side of Persia from French intrigue: but there is no extravagance in hoping that his alarms for our Indian Empire may be removed, by some of those unforeseen obstacles which are inseparable from such remote and complicated enterprizes. — In this, as in the former tract, the author deserves commendation for the accuracy of his local knowledge in regard to the Mediterranean: but his views of general policy embrace several points in which we cannot concur with him.

Art. 25. *Sir Francis Burdett's Address to his Constituents*, denying the Right of the House of Commons to imprison the people of England. 8vo. 1s. Bagshaw. 1810.

Art. 26. *A Vindication of the Privileges of the House of Commons*, in Answer to Sir Francis Burdett's Address, &c. By Henry Maddock, Junior, Esq., of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. 8vo. pp. 45. 1s. 6d. Clarke and Son.

Art. 27. *An Answer to the Argument of Sir Francis Burdett, Bart. relative to the Power of the House of Commons to commit Persons not Members*. By Andrew Fleckie, Esq. 8vo. pp. 30. 2s. Chapple.

Art. 28. *The Political Principles of Sir Francis Burdett exposed*, by one who thinks that "fair play is a jewel." 8vo. pp. 21. 1s. Ridgway.

Our readers would scarcely be satisfied if we suffered a single month to elapse, without paying some attention to the important controversy which has lately divided the opinions and agitated the feelings of the people of England, to an extent unparalleled since the days of Wilkes and Liberty; and though perhaps we ought not to pretend either to have attained that compass of information, or indeed that perfect tranquillity of mind, which are necessary to enable a judge to comprehend the whole scope of a widely operative question, and to pronounce an unbiassed decision on it, we may proceed to state a few of the leading points in the argument, for the cool consideration of those who agree with us in thinking that such a weighty difference ought not to be determined on the one hand by the petulance of offended power, nor, on the other, by the first impressions of an honest but exasperated populace.

Of the pamphlet which appears at the head of the above list, it is unnecessary for us to offer any abridgement, since its contents are universally known, its arguments are in every man's mind, and its

its phrases are on every lip. Sir Francis takes his stand on a broad and plain basis; we will add, too, in general terms, on *constitutional* ground. Regarding rather the great dictates of natural justice than any positive institutions, he strenuously proclaims that to unite the characters of accuser and of judge must, under all circumstances, be iniquitous and intolerable; that it is unnecessary to punish, as a breach of privilege, a libel which might have been subjected to the censure of the ordinary laws; and that a sentence of imprisonment imposed by the House of Commons is a violation of the great charter of our liberties, according to the well-known demand of which, extorted from an unwilling sovereign, no freeman shall be seized or imprisoned, but by the judgment of his peers or the law of the land. The address of Sir Francis abounds also with pointed reflections on the probable abuses of a power so vague and indefinite as that which is claimed by the lower House of Parliament,—asserts that privilege, which at first was solely defensive, has by degrees grown up into power, and been converted to purposes of oppression,—and declares that the first exercise of the extended rights now usurped was subsequent to the overthrow of the constitution, by the abolition of its two more dignified branches, the King and the Lords, effected by the Long Parliament, during the civil wars in the time of Charles the First. Such is the effect of the Honourable Baronet's observations; from which we forbear to select any particular passages, none being distinguished for energy, eloquence, or dignity of style, and many being remarkably deficient even in that good taste which is expected in the writings of a well-educated man.

To the power of imprisoning by the House of Commons, as a punishment for offences, a farther and perhaps a more powerful objection than any of the preceding remarks may be found in the dependency of that body on the Crown for carrying it into execution. According to the received practice, an immediate prorogation, after sentence passed on a ministerial delinquent, would liberate him at once: but the individual who should unfortunately draw down on himself the vengeance both of Government, and the Commons might, (to suppose an extreme case,) by means of successive adjournments, be deprived of his liberty for seven long years. It cannot be deemed wonderful that a patriotic spirit, strongly impressed with the love of liberty, the hatred of oppression, and the jealousy of abuse, should be vigilant to suspect the exercise of a power like this, and ready to question the principles on which its existence is said to be founded.

Two answers to this argument have appeared, and it is taken with inaccuracy in almost every part of its statements. All courts are declared to have the inherent right of judging and punishing contempts against their own jurisdiction and authority,—a right which could not be delegated to others, without the sacrifice of their own independence; and it is contended that breaches of privilege are and ought to be punished as such, and not as offences cognizable at law, under which description nearly all breaches of privilege necessarily fall. For example, a violent assault committed during a debate by one member on another, or on the Speaker, would perhaps be the most aggravated

aggravated offence that could be visited by the Speaker's warrant ; yet the party assaulted might both sue and indict the assailant in the courts of Westminster Hall. Thus, also, when the mayor of Westbury was fined and imprisoned for accepting four pounds of Thomas Long, who was thereupon elected Burgess, (see Lord Coke's 4th Institute,) he was evidently punished for a misdemeanor, which would have subjected him to ordinary legal punishment. The same observation applies to the commitments recorded as having taken place in the 19th, the 18th, and other years of the reign of Queen Elizabeth ; which also most clearly confute the assertion made by Sir Francis, that " the House of Commons never took the law into their own hands, till the days of the Long Parliament " On the subject, however, of the *old laws*, and the exclusive regard professed for them by the Baronet, Mr. Maddock offers some pertinent and very judicious remarks :

" Sir Francis says, "*that upon this, AS UPON ALL OTHER OCCASIONS, he is contented to be guided by the OLD LAWS of the land, in which alone,*" says he, "*I am able to find the Constitution of this country.*" [Address, &c. p. 14.] In this opinion Sir Francis is fundamentally wrong, and from this cardinal error has flowed a series of mistakes in his political reasonings. When do the old laws by which he is exclusively guided commence ? Does he go back, with Filmer, to the days of *Adam* ? Does he go so far back as to the traditions of the *Druids*, or does he con over his lesson in the *Saxon* laws, or find patterns of justice amidst *Norman* tyranny ? As I am in doubt when his series of *old laws* begins, so also I am at a loss to discover where it *ends*. Are the Bill of Rights and the Act of Settlement, which have usually been esteemed the best foundations of our political rights, *old laws* in his estimation ? I shall be told, perhaps, that these laws are declaratory of the old law. This I think is true of the Bill of Rights, though Lord Mansfield and others have asserted the contrary, but certainly it is not true of the Act of Settlement. Sir Francis has given us his definition of the constitution, but I think a better may be furnished. My meaning of the word constitution I will express in the words of Mr. Mackintosh : " By the constitution of a state, I mean the body of those written and unwritten fundamental laws which regulate the most important rights of the higher magistrates, and the most essential privileges of the subjects." [Mackintosh's Discourse, p. 53.] It is thus that the constitution of England is composed. It is composed of un repealed old laws, and of modern laws. It is, to use Mr. Capel Lofft's expression, " a government of laws administered on fixed principles." [Vid. Pref. to Lofft's Gilbert's Evidence, p. 38.] It is not, therefore, to be found in the 1st, 2d, and 3d volumes of the statutes, but in all those volumes and statutes, in customs, and records, and in the rules and orders of the two houses of parliament, as entered on their journals, and in the Reports of law-cases. Soon after the Revolution in 1688, the commissions of the Judges were made, not as formerly, by the *old laws*, *durante bene placito*, but *quandiu bene se gesserint*, of which good behaviour the parliament alone can determine. Now this is not an old law, and yet it forms a part, and



and a most material part of the Constitution, and therefore the Constitution in this as in a thousand other such instances, cannot altogether be found in the *old laws*."

This gentleman has not, however, adverted to the curious fact, that one of the grievances specifically stated and redressed in the Bill of Rights is the want of that respect which is due from the courts of Law to the privilege of committal claimed by the House of Commons; though he properly reports the two resolutions of that House in 1699,

"That to assert that the House of Commons have no power of commitment, but of their own members, tends to the subversion of the constitution of the House of Commons."

"That to print or publish any books or libels reflecting upon the proceedings of the House of Commons or of any member thereof for or relating to his service therein, is a high violation of the rights and privileges of the House of Commons."

If to the foregoing observations we add that the Great Charter, on which Sir Francis places his strongest reliance, admits the power of imprisonment *per legem terre*, as well as *per judicium parium*; and that Lord Coke, whom he regards as the greatest of constitutional lawyers, declares the *lex et consuetudo parliamenti* to be an essential part of the law of the land; the legal part of the argument appears to us to be closed, and it is impossible to contend with the least hope of success against the legality of the privilege exercised by the House of Commons.

The questions how far such a right can exist, consistently with the security of the subject, — whether it be not so radically at variance with the constitution of England as to rank among those *evil customs* which *ought to be abolished*, as soon as brought to the test of reason, — and whether the natural tendency to abuse does not wholly counter-vail the probability of benefit, — would lead us into wide and dangerous discussions. Yet we should deem it an unworthy dereliction of the privilege of free inquiry, if we declined to state the strong impression that has been made on our understanding, by no inattentive consideration of the subject. Our opinion, then, in few words, is that, without this privilege, the House of Commons would not exist, as a free and efficient part of the constitution; that it is essential for the protection of its dignity, and even of its independence; that the liability to abuse belongs to it only in common with all the judicial tribunals, and all the deliberative bodies that are recognized by the constitution; and that it is far less likely to be perverted to oppressive purposes by the House of Commons, which still continues to emanate in a great degree from the people, and which is still, as to many of its members, amenable to the people, than by any of the other bodies to which the same right is necessarily intrusted.

Nevertheless, it is not to be concealed that to several persons the actual state of the question has appeared to rest on a very different foundation. We have looked to the theory of the constitution; others, regarding its practical condition, are inspired by recent events with no very extravagant apprehension that the union between the crown and the parliament may become so permanent and  
indissoluble,

indissoluble; that all the privileges of the latter may be virtually the same as an increase of power in the hands of the former. Happy would it be for that constitution, of which the purity is affected by corruption, but of which the very existence is endangered by violence, if the question last stated could be set at rest for ever by prudent, moderate, and effectual reformation!

Reverting to the publications under notice, we must observe that the occasional and hasty pages of Mr. Maddock are very creditable to that gentleman, as proving the facility with which he can employ, for temporary purposes, the stores of information that were previously lodged in his memory. Mr. Fleckie produces also some precedents in point: but he wastes too much paper in mere declamation; and he defends his position by arguments in which we cannot join him, when he abandons the great and general provisions made in favour of liberty by Magna Charta, because some of its enactments are become obsolete. We had almost forgotten the '*Political Principles of Sir F.B. exposed*;' and it would not have been of much consequence, had we entirely overlooked that flimsy pamphlet, which consists principally of extracts from the Honourable Baronet's address, and seems only calculated to attract a few chance purchasers, who may be taken in by the present popularity of its subject.

It can scarcely be requisite for us to remark that all the points, to which we have adverted, are antecedent to the question that has now arisen respecting the committal of Sir Francis himself, for his mode of disputing the imprisonment of Mr. Jones. We have met with no statement of that particular case on either side; we are ignorant of the ground on which the second exercise of authority is doubted; and we are at some loss to conceive how any person, after an express recognition of the right possessed by the House of Commons to confine its own members, can justify a forcible resistance to the Speaker's warrant. Possibly, before the appearance of our next number, our judgment will have been superseded by that of a Court of Law.

#### POETRY.

Art. 29. *The Battles of Talavera*, a Poem. Sixth Edition corrected, with some Additions. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray. 1810.

As it was an object accomplished by Louthembourg in his grand picture of the battle of Maida, so it is the attempt of the writer in this poem to present an exact delineation of the bloody conflicts which he describes; and it must be confessed that this poetical *battle-piece* takes us into the very field of action, and in a manner realizes the heroic exploits of that well-fought day. Though his muse is consecrated to the glory of the victors, the author does justice to the enemy. We copy one stanza of this animated performance, as a specimen.

' Now from the plain and every steep  
A thousand thunders peal;  
Again the vollied tempests sweep,  
And sulphury vapours dark and deep  
The meeting armies veil;

The

The kindling fight at every post  
 Blazes, but towards the centre most,  
 Whence, hoping on a happier stage  
 The renovated war to wage,  
     France now assails the hill,  
 And pours with aggregated rage.  
     The storm of fire and steel;  
 And when the freshening breezes broke  
 A chasm in the volumed smoke,  
 Busy and black was seen to wave  
     The iron harvest of the field,—  
     That harvest, which, in slaughter tilled,  
 Is gathered in the grave :—  
 And now before their mutual fires  
     They yield, and now advance ;  
 And now 'tis Britain that retires,  
     And now the line of France :  
 They struggle long with changeful fate,  
     And all the battle's various cries,  
 Now depressed, and now elate,  
     In mingled clamours rise ;  
 Till France at length before the weight  
     Of British onset flies :  
 ' Forward,' the fiery victors shout,  
 ' Forward, the enemy's in rout,  
     Pursue him and he dies !'

Some notes are added : but no notice is taken of the retreat subsequent to the action.

It is said that this poem is the production of Mr. Croker, secretary to the Admiralty.

**Art. 30.** *The Patriot's Vision*, a Poem ; to which is added a Monody on the Death of the Rt. Hon. Charles James Fox. 4to. 2s. 6d. Gale and Curtis. 1810.

This Patriot's Vision is supposed to have taken place on the night of the anniversary of his Majesty's Accession, October 25th, 1809. The poet sleeps, and wakes, and sleeps again ; but " the visions of the night on his bed " are not in honour of the Jubilee, which is termed a ' mock festival.' Contrasting the events at the opening of his Majesty's reign with those of recent date, the writer endeavours to prove that we have very slender ground for rejoicing. Even the battle of Talavera, which makes so splendid a figure in the last mentioned poem, is here " shorn of its beams," by pointing to its melancholy result :

' They fight, they bleed in vain — O dire disgrace !  
 I see the victor-bands their march retrace,  
 And hear the groans of thousands left forlorn  
 By agonizing wounds or wasting sickness worn.'

The vision of the existing state of things presents to the sleeper none of the glorious images of former days,

' But

But heavy thoughts to present times confin'd,  
In gloomy contrast, crowd upon his mind'.

As to the *Monody* on the death of Mr. Fox, it is avowedly attempted partly in imitation of Milton's *Lycidas*: thus courting a comparison not much to its advantage, since of all *Monodies* the *Lycidas* is the most beautiful; possessing the charms which result from its pastoral form, and from the adaptation of pastoral images to the subject deplored. In the case of Mr. Fox, however, it was almost impossible to introduce that strain of imagery which Milton has employed in lamenting the death of his friend and fellow-colleague, Mr. King. That passage which begins "*Where were ye, Nymphs?*" is thus parodied in the present poem:

'Genius of Britain! whither wast thou fled  
When Fox was numbered with the dead?  
Say, on some sea-beat cliff, whose towering form  
Looks toward insulting Gallia's hostile strand,  
Hadst thou assumed thy watchful stand;  
Or, 'mid the fury of the battle-storm,  
Far o'er the waves, where fleets contending ride,  
Say, hadst thou wing'd thy daring flight, to guide  
Vindictive thunder 'gainst the trembling foe?  
Alas! I fondly dream — thou could'st have done  
Nought to protect thy much-lov'd son  
From Fate's resistless blow:—

Here is a faint imitation; but the whole piece is very unlike the *Lycidas*; and though the merits of the deceased patriot and statesman are sung in strains which may be called animated and pathetic, they are not Miltonic.

Art. 31. *Iberia's Crisis*, a Fragment of an Epic Poem, in three Parts. —First Part, Usurpation's corrupt Agents, foul Stratagems, and diabolical Progress. —Second Part, the Discomfiture of Usurpation from the Valour of Patriotism. —Third Part, the base Exultation of Usurpation. 8vo. pp. 66. 5s. Miller. 1809.

It would be a *bull* to say that the *notes* are the best part of this poem: but we are strictly correct in the assertion that the prose of this pamphlet greatly exceeds the verse in merit, though the former is not without faults. Perhaps the author thought that the strong language of the Epic Muse would best express those feelings of detestation, which French perfidy and usurpation had excited; and that the scenes which he had experienced, and the facts which had come to his knowledge during his stay in Spain, would kindle a poetic ardor: but alas! though his indignation is virtuous, it is not poetically inspired. In every page we meet with proofs of the inadequacy of his powers to an epic flight: but one specimen shall suffice, from the beginning of the Second Part:

'The chivalry Spain's crisis now reviv'd,  
Her sleeping lion to rampant posture rous'd,  
That repell'd th' insidious Hydra of Gaul,  
Availing of her insuspicion weak

With

With serpent's arts, should be personified  
 In imagery such as of old display'd  
 Milton's inspir'd genius, or de Vega's,  
 Rehears'd in harmony of Handel's notes.  
 Spain and her sons display Salvator's style  
 Disturb'd irregular; and so these lines,  
 'Midst rage of tumult, toil, and war compos'd.'

Luckily for the purchaser, who may be attracted by the title, the greatest portion of this pamphlet is in the form of notes; and, as the author appears to have been an attentive and accurate observer, it is to be lamented that he had not confined himself to an exhibition in prose of his observations on Spain and the Spaniards: which, judging from the sketches here given, we think would have formed an amusing and instructive publication. The historical and geographical notices, which these pages contain, exhibit in a short compass a clearer view of Spain, and of the Spanish character, than is to be found in many larger works; affording a description of Madrid and of the state-palace, of several of the provinces, of the roads and mode of travelling, of the state of society and manners, and of the feelings of the people towards this country. We wish that we could make room for any such quotations from this Appendix as would be satisfactory, without going too much into length.

In detailing the corruptions of the Spanish court, and the imbecility of the government to which they led, the author does not spare the Queen and her paramour Godoy. Spain is a country which every good man must wish to see enlightened, cultivated, free, and happy. Oh, that the prospect were bright?

Art. 32. *The Scheldtiad*: a mock-heroic Poem, in six Cantos. 8vo. 4s. 6d. G. Hughes.

Some scribblers imagine that, when they have coined a word happily expressive of the subject which they intend to discuss, they have caught wit and genius by the tail, and that they need only write on to produce a fund of entertainment: but we, who have had some experience in these matters, have often found, to our sorrow, that sprightliness has been confined to a title-page; and after having waded through an extended quagmire of muddy poetry, we have met with no reward for the splashing and floundering to which we had been doomed. Goldsmith applies the epithet *lazy* to the Scheldt; and the author of the *Scheldtiad* appears to have swallowed large draughts of its lazy and almost stagnant waters. From all such mock-heroics, good Lord deliver us!—It is enough that we have read this poem: but it would be a waste of ink, time, and paper to criticise it. When our readers have had a specimen or two, we are sure that they will agree to consign the six cantos to the trunk-maker:

'Oh! muses come, inspire the grateful lays,  
 As worthy he, so worthy be the praise.'

'A sloth and tameness through its season run  
 As if the age of enterprize was done.'

'Had Plymouth storm'd, its ramparts sapp'd and turn'd  
 And tons of powder in his phrenzy burn'd.'

Powder

Powder is not like this gentleman's *verse*, it will not lie still to be burnt. It possesses its colour indeed, it is *sable* : but it explodes with a noise which this misnamed mock heroic never will make :

' So Muse forbear, awhile such *sable* verse,  
In pity for Britannia to rehearse.'

How cruel was it in the Muse not to forbear !

## CORRESPONDENCE.

We have perused the remarks of '*an Admiral*,' on a sentiment or two which we have lately advanced respecting the strength of our navy, and we shall present an abstract of them to our readers. In p. 317 of our Number for March, we observed that "our navy is the safeguard of our independence;" and in a preceding article, p. 307-8, we expressed a reliance on the adequacy of that navy to insure our safety in the event of a peace. Believing also, the Admiral says, that our fleets are our safe-guard, he adds :

' It will require more than ordinary prudence to maintain such a sea-force on foot during peace as will secure this country against the power of a man who has not only all the ships, but all the seamen of France, Italy, Holland, Germany, Denmark, and Sweden under his immediate controul and command. This assertion can only become worthy of regard by stating what has actually happened, and what must happen upon a restoration of tranquillity. No one is ignorant that the great body of our best and essential seamen serve by compulsion. They have always been discharged upon making peace ; justice, necessity, the impossibility of retaining them, command the measure. What happened in 1802, and 1803, demonstrates not only the impossibility of retaining prime seamen, but the impossibility of again collecting them, but by the violent and tedious mode of impressing ; for, during that peace, not a single line of battle ship could be manned by volunteers in more than a twelvemonth ; and notwithstanding the promises made in the House of Commons of manning fifty sail of the line in two months, not one could be provided with seamen without pressing. — This is the subject upon which those who propose peace should think *deeply* ; and it would give me, as well as every well wisher to his country the highest pleasure to find that these islands could, on a sudden emergency, and after having discharged the seamen, equip such a navy as would be able to repel the attacks of the maritime strength of combined Europe.'

This subject is certainly of high interest ; and the suggestions of Admiral P. (as we conjecture) deserve attention, because they are the result of the experience of many years.

Dr. Clarke's note is received, and we shall advert to its contents.

We have not yet procured the work mentioned by ZZZ. When we have had an opportunity of examining it, we shall address another line to him.

The fair author of "the Husband and the Lover" is desired to inform us where the papers, sent in her letter, may be returned for her use. If this be not done, they will be destroyed before witnesses. We are surprized at her mistake.

The APPENDIX to this Vol. of the Review will be published with the Number for May, on the first of June.



THE  
 APPENDIX  
 TO THE  
 SIXTY-FIRST VOLUME  
 OF THE  
 MONTHLY REVIEW  
 ENLARGED.

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FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Code d'Instruction Criminelle*, &c. ; i. e. The Code of Criminal Instruction, an Edition corresponding with the original Edition of the Bulletin of Laws; followed by the Motives alleged by the Counsellors of State, and the Reports made by the Committee of Legislation of the Legislative Body, on each of the Laws composing the Code. With an alphabetical and arranged Table, which collects on every Subject all the Dispositions relating to it; and which indicates, in the Article of every Functionary, and public Officer, all the Functions that appertain to him, and that he is bound to fulfil, in criminal Matters, or those which are connected with the Correctional or Simple Police. 8vo. pp. 402. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe.

As rather a later period than we had at first intended, we proceed to the examination of another important branch of the laws established in France, under the name of the *Code Napoleon*; of the former parts of which we gave a report in the Appendixes to our 55th, 56th, and 59th volumes.

Perhaps it may be proper to begin by obviating a preliminary mistake, into which many readers may possibly be betrayed by the title of this volume, as at first seeming to import that the whole penal system is here laid down, including a list of all the crimes that are subjected to legal censure, and all the punishments by which they are visited; a discussion at no time unimportant, and which at the present period, when general

but salutary reform, and doubtless necessary to the actual practice of the institution, is it proper to circumscribe the circle within which the jurors should be chosen; it is right to secure to citizens the privilege of refusing not illusory, and to discover a method which should not give to the accused a premature acquaintance with their juryman; it was convenient also to prevent, by a wisely combined organization, the too frequent summonings of the same person. It was not desirable to create the *profession* of a jurymen; nor to allow the repeated exercise of this honourable function to produce the double inconvenience of weakening, by habit, that profound veneration with which the juror ought to be penetrated when he sets his foot within the salutory, and of becoming burdensome to him by taking him too late from his ordinary occupations. In fact, in questioning the observation of the juror, we ought to require only a simple manner, dignified, frugal forms, and inspired by the force of profound conviction.

Left-Experience dictated what ought to be, and what has been done. In fact, it has not been repeated to us that juries are unacquainted with law and with judicial forms. What necessity is there for their understanding *late* and *before*? Is it not just that the observation of him and of his jury is inspired? To pronounce on facts, they will have facts of reliable evidence; judgment of the object, uprightness of heart, and knowledge of the world.

Now they will always bring that profound and wholesome attention, which is ever waiting in the exercise of an august function when it is fully fulfilled; they will be penetrated with a religious respect for the moment of condemnation, no man is accused as a criminal; respect which is chiefly reflected in those who have the spectacle of misfortune always before them; and, above all, they will not have forgotten a certain immortality which it is not easy to avoid, a certain solemnity of which we are habitually made the witnesses.

Thus the institution of petit juries is permanently incorporated, we hope, with the laws of France; but the individual does not enjoy the additional protection of a grand jury, pronouncing an opinion on oath that sufficient grounds of charge exist to authorize his being called to make his defence in court. These preliminary inquiries are referred to the decision of certain inferior magistrates, and ultimately to the metropolitan tribunal passing under the name of *la cour impériale*; and during the preparatory steps, the requisite industry seems to be directed towards securing the suspected person from unnecessary vexation, without too far extending the offender's chance of impunity. It is also to be observed that certain descriptions of offences are tried in a more summary and expeditious manner; for the counselors of state remark that, "in preserving the jury, they should not renounce another institution, which has been proved to be necessary by the experience of many years, that of special tribunals, established for crimes that cannot be too actively pursued,



small, too promptly judged, or too exemplarily punished; and against certain persons, who, far from offering any the least pledge to society, are already signalized as its scourges." We here find rather an alarming admission of the questionable principle that the former character of a culprit may operate not only on his punishment, but also on the mode of his trial; and indeed in the performance of our present task we have been often led to suspect, from various parts of the code, that vagrants, persons without property, and such as are considered as old and notorious offenders, will run the hazard of encountering, on the day of trial, a torrent of overwhelming prejudice, the more dangerous from being to a certain degree sanctioned by the language of the law.

Without pretending to trace an accusation through all its preparatory forms, let us now suppose that the *procurcur-impérial*, residing in the department which has been the scene of a crime committed, has reported his *procès-verbal* to the *procurcur-général*, who is satisfied that the accused should be put on his trial; and that, in fine, a majority of the judges of the imperial court are of the same opinion. Let us conceive the quarterly court of assize to be sitting in its department, composed of a member of the imperial court, who acts as president, and four of the senior judges among those who reside in the department. The *procurcur-général* is represented by a substitute; and the clerk of the tribunal, before which the antecedent depositions have been taken, assumes his seat as a member of the court, though he is invested with no judicial authority. The order of the trial then commences.

‘ The accused shall appear unfettered, and accompanied by guards only to prevent his escape. The president shall ask him his name, his christian names, his age, his profession, his residence, and the place of his birth.

‘ The president shall inform the counsel for the accused, that he can say nothing against his conscience, or inconsistent with the respect due to the laws, and that he must express himself with moderation and decency.

‘ The president shall thus address the jury, who shall stand uncovered :

“ You swear and promise, before God and men, to examine, with the most scrupulous attention, the charges which shall be brought against N.: not to betray the interests either of the accused or of the society which accuses him; to communicate with none till after your verdict; to listen neither to hatred nor malice, to fear nor affection; to decide according to the charges and the evidence in justification, according to your conscience and your entire conviction, with the impartiality and the firmness that become an honest and a free man.”

Each of the judges, called individually by the president, shall reply, raising his hand, *I swear this*, on pain of annulling the proceeding.

Immediately afterward, the president shall warn the accused to be attentive to what he is about to hear.

He shall next order the clerk to read the decree of the imperial court, referring the cause to the court of assize, and the act of accusation. The clerk shall read it with a loud voice.

The president shall then recall to the accused the contents of the act of accusation, and shall say to him: "You hear what is imputed to you; and you will now hear the charges to be produced against you."

Then follow some regulations respecting the interchange and publication of lists of the witnesses intended to be produced on either side, to which no addition is to be made without the express permission of the judges; and the charge is opened on the part of the prosecution.

The president shall order the witnesses to withdraw into the apartment destined for them; which they shall quit only when called to deliver their testimony. The president shall take precautions, if necessary, to prevent the witnesses from conferring with each other respecting the crime of the accused, before they shall have made their deposition.

The witnesses shall depose separately, in the order established by the *procureur-général*. Before deposing, they shall take the oath to bear witness without hatred or fear, to speak the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, on pain of nullity\*.

The president shall ask them their name, their christian names, age, profession, and residence; whether they knew the accused before the fact mentioned in the accusation; whether they are relations or connections either of the accused, or of the party in the civil action, (*i. e.* the party injured by the offence, who may also recover damages against the defendant,) and in what degree; he shall ask them farther, whether they are not attached to the service of one or the other of them:—this done, the witnesses shall give their evidence orally.

The president shall require the clerk to take a note of the additions, alterations, or variations, which may exist between the deposition of a witness and his former declarations.

The *procureur-général* and the accused may require the president to have notes taken of such alterations, additions, and variations.

After each deposition, the president shall ask the witness whether it be of the accused present in court that he has meant to speak; and he shall then ask the accused whether he wishes to answer what has been said against him.

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\* *A peine de nullité* is the phrase here and in many other passages. It sometimes appears to affect the validity of all the proceedings; but in this place, probably, the evidence only of the witness neglecting to take the required oath would be set aside.

On criminal trials in this country, we believe the practice to be for the judge to ask the prisoner, at the close of each witness's deposition, whether he, the prisoner, would wish to put any farther *interrogatories*, and not to call on him to *answer* till all the depositions have been concluded.

‘ The witness is not to be interrupted : but the accused or his counsel may question him *through the organ of the president*, and say, as well against the witness as against his testimony, any thing that may serve to the defence of the accused.’

This mode of questioning, by the intervention of the president, instead of a direct address to the witness, would materially affect the privilege of cross-examination, which legal men among us so highly prize, and of which witnesses so feelingly complain. On which side of the water the cause of truth is most judiciously consulted, we shall not here give an opinion.

‘ The president may likewise ask from the witness *and the accused* all the explanations which he shall deem necessary for the manifestation of the truth.

‘ The judges, the *procureur-général*, and the jurors, shall have the same privilege, asking leave of the president. The *civil party* shall not put any questions either to any witness, or to the accused, except through the organ of the president.’

With regard to the difference which will here be recognized between the English and the French mode of proceeding, we acknowledge that we do not feel much hesitation in preferring the former ; which exempts the prisoner from the necessity of stating any facts, from the temptation to falsehood and deception to which he would be exposed, and from the danger of criminating himself by ill-advised admissions. In the agitation and anxiety naturally resulting from his awful situation, we think, the truth could not be expected from him with any appearance of reason. The cool villain would artfully falsify the occurrences which would prove his condemnation ; and the innocent but weak man, overpowered by a sense of horror at being drawn by circumstances into a suspicion of guilt, might suppress or vary them so as to incur contradictions.

It is then enacted that the witnesses shall remain in court, till the verdict is pronounced ; and that the accused shall proceed to call his witnesses, either to prove exculpatory facts, or to establish his character. Provision is also made for paying the expences of the witnesses. — What follows is of first-rate consequence :

‘ Evidence cannot be given,

‘ 1. By the father, the mother, the grandfather, the grandmother, or any other from whom is descended the accused, or any of those

who are accused with him, being present and subjected to the same trial.

2. By the son, the daughter, the grandson, the grand-daughter, or any other descendant;
3. By brothers and sisters;
4. By persons connected in the same degree by marriage;
5. By husband or wife, even after a divorce has been pronounced;
6. By informers, whose evidence receives a pecuniary compensation from the law;

Without, however, the proceedings being annulled in consequence of any of the above-mentioned persons being heard, unless the *procureur-général*, or the civil party, or the accused, shall have objected to their examination.

Nothing can be more adverse to the prevailing principles that govern the English courts in matters of evidence, than this sweeping disqualification of so many persons as witnesses. We apprehend it to have been long the established practice of our judges, (who are rarely directed by statute in matters of evidence, which fall chiefly under the disposition of those unwritten and traditionary rules that pass under the denomination of the common law,) to extend to the utmost the competency of witnesses, and leave the possible bias of interest or affection to operate against their credit only. To the indiscriminate adoption of this practice, a strong objection certainly exists, as it may tend to the commission of perjury,—a greater evil, in many instances, than the suppression of truth: but surely the French code carries the opposite doctrine to a most unreasonable length. Of all the relations and connections above enumerated, as excluded by it from the power of being heard in a court of justice, only one has the same effect among us, that of husband and wife. Is it not extravagant to believe that the brother of a wife many years deceased will, in all cases, feel so warm an attachment to his brother-in-law as to outweigh the obligation of an oath? Besides, this monstrous ordinance affords complete impunity to those worst of crimes which affect a man's domestic relations, and renders it nearly impossible to detect, for example, parricide or incest. The incompetency even of husbands and wives to appear for or against each other in this country has, it is believed, been occasionally repealed by the necessity of the case: but in the French code no exceptions are introduced, and the whole proceedings would be annulled if any deviation were admitted. It would have been worthy of the legislators to consider whether they were not creating, in a depraved father, or an abandoned elder brother, a dreadful interest in corrupting those younger branches of the family whom they are more especially bound to instruct and preserve; and in early initiating them into crime, as safe accomplices,

accomplices, who could never be permitted to disclose the guilt in which they had shared.

We have not time, however, to prolong our suggestions for the amendment of the jurisprudence of our neighbours; and indeed we have little doubt that the defect, on which we have just animadverted, will speedily correct itself. — Among the provisions of minor consequence concerning the delivery of evidence in court, that which follows will illustrate the minute and cautious attention with which the legislators have anticipated possible obstacles to the trial of causes :

‘ If the accused be deaf and dumb, and cannot write, the president *en office* shall appoint for his interpreter that person who has been most accustomed to communicate with him. — The same shall be done in regard to a deaf and dumb witness. — In case the deaf and dumb should know how to write, the clerk shall write down the questions and observations which shall be made to him; they shall be transmitted to the accused or the witness, who shall give an answer or declaration in writing; and the whole shall then be read by the clerk.

‘ At the close of the depositions by witnesses, and the respective speeches to which they may have given occasion, the civil party or his counsel and the *procureur-général* shall be heard, and shall enlarge on the proofs that sustain their accusation. The accused and his counsel may then answer them. A reply shall be allowed to the civil party and the *procureur-général*: but the accused or his counsel shall always have the last word.’

We apprehend that this privilege is the reverse of the practice in this country, where the counsel for the prosecution, in a criminal charge, or for the plaintiff, in a suit for the recovery of damages, is always permitted to be last heard.

The trial being now finished, the president shall demand of the jury, whether, in their judgment, the accusation be made out; and whether, if made out, it was accompanied with such or such qualifying circumstances? Where the accused is within sixteen years of age, he shall farther inquire, “ Whether the accused acted with discretion ? ” — The jury then retire to deliberate; and no sooner do they arrive in the chamber appropriated for them, than the foreman is required to read over to them a prepared formula, or lecture, instructing them in their duties: with which, we think, they ought to have been familiar before the trial began, and of which the recapitulation, if it engage their attention at such a moment, will be too likely to drive all the facts of the trial from their memory.

Unanimity is not required in the verdict: if the jury be equally divided in opinion, the accused is acquitted: if they condemn by a bare majority, that circumstance is to be notified to the judges, who then deliberate on the case; and if the majority of the judges agree with the minority of the jury, so that

that more than one half of the persons composing the court are in favour of the prisoner's innocence, he is acquitted. When he is duly convicted, if the judges are unanimously of opinion that the jury were wrong, they may award a new trial at the following assize; the first verdict must be superseded, and a new jury required to pronounce on the facts. This revision must be instituted by the court itself spontaneously, *ex officio*, and without any extraneous application; and it cannot take place when the accused is pronounced *not guilty*. The right of appeal, to be exercised within ten days, is also conferred on the defendant who has been found guilty.

In determining the mode of forming and convoking the jury, the French law points out the sources from which that body may be drawn, and mentions that it should be composed of "citizens who have attained thirty years of age; enjoying political and civil rights, and offering the best guarantee by their functions, their profession, their knowledge, and their fortune." These are the words used by the counsellors of state in addressing the legislative body; the law itself requires that jurymen shall be taken, 1. from the members of the electoral colleges; 2. from the three hundred householders of the department, who pay the most taxes; 3. from the functionaries of the administrative order, according to the nomination of the Emperor; 4. from the doctors and licentiates of one or of several of the four professions of law, medicine, the sciences, and the belles lettres, the members and correspondents of the Institute, and of the other learned societies which are recognized by the government; 5. from the notaries; 6. from the bankers, brokers, agents, and merchants of one of the first classes; 7. from those who are employed by the several administrations, having an income of at least 4000 francs. An Englishman would perhaps look with some jealousy at a groupe which included so much civil intercourse with government; and would believe, notwithstanding all the intellectual refinement that appears to be introduced into the system from the literary bodies enumerated in the list, that an equal portion of plain and upright good sense (the great standard-characteristic of a jury) might be drawn from the mass of freeholders of a certain value.

A still greater cause of suspicion exists in the appointment of the jury-lists by the *prefet*, the immediate and permanent officer of the crown; and in the promise held forth by the Emperor to reward such jurymen as shall be reported to him by the several judges to be peculiarly deserving of his imperial favour. This most gracious promise is, however, less mischievous than it might be, for a reason which proves the institution

institution itself of juries to be useless in all the great political purposes for which we are accustomed to admire and revere it, viz. that *juries are not to be permitted to take cognizance of any political offences whatsoever*. Special commissions for these and other crimes are authorized to be appointed, as occasion may require : — but our attention must be more particularly confined to the ordinary course of justice, and even of this we have already professed our inability to pursue all the details. The last title of the code is devoted to ‘ certain objects affecting the public interest and the general security,’ and comprises five chapters, — on the mode of preserving the records of judgment, — on prisons, houses of detention, and of justice, — on the means of securing individual liberty against illegal detentions, or other arbitrary acts, — on the *réhabilitation* of the condemned, (on which article we shall speak presently,) and on prescription, which here signifies the time limited for the commencement of prosecutions in various cases.

The enactments relating to the several sorts of prisons do not appear to include any matter worthy of observation : indeed, they are rather deficient in prescribing regulations for preserving the cleanliness, and promoting the health, the morals, and the decent deportment of the prisoners ; requiring the judge to visit the places of confinement not more frequently than once in a month, and placing the police of them, in general terms, under the superintendence of certain magistrates. Laborious occupations are not enjoined. The difficult problem of reconciling the government of a prison with humanity and justice receives no attempt at a solution ; since, while the keeper is invested with the power of close and solitary imprisonment in irons, to restrain and punish his subjects when mutinous, they have no specific remedy against his violence and tyranny, nor any legal mode of even making known their grievances to those who might redress them. The means, by which personal liberty is secured against illegal arrests, depends rather on former laws than on any part of the system now promulgated.

By the *réhabilitation* of a convict, is understood his restoration to all the rights and privileges which he had forfeited by being subjected to a painful or infamous punishment. He cannot demand it till five years have elapsed since the execution of his sentence, during the whole of which time he must have resided in the same *arrondissement* ; nor unless he has been domiciled during two complete years in the territory of the municipality to which the demand is addressed. It must also be supported by testimonials to his good conduct from the municipal authorities. The criminal court receives the demand ;

demand, and pronounce on it at the end of three months ; if their judgment be unfavourable, the application may be renewed at the end of five years, with the same advantage : but, if the party re-admitted into society should offend again, he becomes incapacitated for ever.—We are disposed to applaud the policy and the generosity of the principle which has created this institution, though it seems to have been carried into effect with too much coldness. The term of five years ought to be, under certain circumstances, susceptible of abridgement ; and some particular actions, independently of a long series of good behaviour, might be properly allowed to effect the restoration of the person performing them. Surely, for example, the convict who has saved the life of a drowning citizen, at the hazard of his own, might receive that most acceptable token of gratitude from the society of which he has preserved a member, by being himself re-instated in its benefits.

The concluding chapter embraces a subject which has no place, we believe, in the criminal law of England ; we mean *prescription*, or, as it is with us styled in civil cases, *limitation*. In all capital offences, and in those which are visited by painful or infamous punishment, no prosecution shall be instituted, nor action brought, after ten years from the period of committing the crime. In smaller violations of the law, and in transgressions which fall under the cognizance of the police, shorter terms are prescribed.—The policy of this law, which is a modification of certain antient regulations that prevailed under the old government of France, is not perfectly obvious to our minds. The only reason that can well be supposed to exist, for the delay of accusations, is a suspension of the power of producing evidence which may perhaps afterward be obtained : but why should it not be the ground-work of a trial, whenever it is discovered ? A complication of unforeseen circumstances may bring to light a murder, accompanied by concealment of the body, at a much greater distance of time than ten years. An act of forgery may lie dormant for very many years, till the complaints and suspicions of some person, whose remote interests have been defrauded, trace it home to the delinquent. The ten years' absence of witnesses might be the result of inevitable accident, or it might be purchased by a rich criminal, or forced by a desperate offender. These appear to be solid objections to the law of prescription ; and the only arguments offered in favour of it have so much declamation in them, that they will awaken distrust in minds which are habituated to legal reasoning. M. Réal, the Government-Orator, in presenting the project to the legislative body, exclaims



exclaims that the prescription is in itself a punishment, in the horrible fear which deprives the criminal of his safety by day, and his repose by night; and M. Lavois, in his statement of the report from the Committee, asks whether the public vengeance, destined to repress the resentment of individuals, should be itself interminable? Without offering any defence of vengeance, either public or private, it may be well doubted whether it be for the safety of society that the period may arrive at which the most enormous guilt may be made manifest to the conviction of all mankind, and yet shall go unpunished.

We must not close this volume without remarking that the incense offered in it to his Imperial Majesty is so extremely profuse, as to prove that the "increase of appetite has grown with what it feeds on," in the enjoyment of history which the mind of Napoleon appears to feel. As well in the motives with which the code is ushered in, as in the reports by which its several parts are sanctioned, the counsellors of state and the legislators appear to deem it quite sufficient to adduce the opinion of "the genius of France," the "first of conquerors and of legislators," in support of any disputable position. These pieces are therefore more curious in the history which they present of the progress of reformation in the law, than valuable for the free discussion of important principles; and they are often much too declamatory for a statement of the elements of legal science. They are, however, and so is the code to which they relate, well worthy of consideration from our English legislators; to whom they will exhibit some particulars that deserve their adoption, and at the same time such a general system of administration as will not be likely to diminish their veneration for the existing jurisprudence of their own country.

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ART. II. *Des Compensations dans les Destinées humaines.* i.e. On Compensations in the Human Destiny. By H. AZAÏS. 8vo. pp. 335. Paris, 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 10s. sewed.

A VERY grave performance is here offered to us, which seems also to have been composed under circumstances highly conducive to serious reflection. M. AZAÏS states that, in the time of revolutionary persecution, he was obliged to abandon his home, and to seek shelter in a monastic retreat, where he enjoyed tranquillity and leisure, and experienced the kindest reception. The solace thus afforded to his disquietude, and the degree of happiness of which this situation, though the consequence of misfortune, ultimately became productive, led him to a general contemplation of the connection between

good and evil throughout the world at large ; and these considerations gave rise to the present work. He has endeavoured to enliven the tediousness of disquisition by the introduction of two characters ; one a young man who is disappointed and dissatisfied ; the other, a man who is advanced in years, and has been exposed to much severer trials than the youth, but who has arrived by reflection at the comfortable state of discovering in every evil the source of countervailing good. These two persons are represented as meeting in a country retreat ; when the elder, affected by the distress of the younger, enters into a series of reasoning on the circumstances which influence our happiness, at the various periods and in the various relations of life. He shews that the griefs, of which the latter complains as peculiar to himself, are common to all mankind at his age ; and that the excess of sensibility, which has led to his disappointments, will, when duly moderated, be productive of great happiness at a future period.

The author avails himself of this speaker as a medium to communicate and illustrate his theory. His leading principles are, that of all advantages in our situation, those alone which proceed from reflection are unqualified blessings ; and that every other good brings along with it, immediately or remotely, an equivalent evil. He infers that, however different the circumstances of men may be, the condition of each, taken in its whole, is equal : but he admits that to form an estimate of any man's lot in life is extremely difficult, and involves a variety of abstract computations. It requires a consideration of the advantages and disadvantages proceeding from every feature of his character ; from the circumstances of the age and country in which he lives ; and from the result of each event of his life, whether great or small, foreseen or unforeseen, up to the termination of his career, before which it is obviously impracticable to complete the estimate of the fate of any individual.

These ideas are by no means new, nor are they happily developed in this volume. The great defect of M. Azais is the want of that philosophical accuracy in defining and reasoning, which is indispensable to the comprehension of an abstract subject. He discovers no sense of the importance of brevity to perspicuity, and appears to be unacquainted with the valuable services that have been rendered to science by metaphysical precision in detecting the ambiguities of language. As a work of science, therefore, this book has few pretensions to eminence : but, as a treatise on practical morality, it may be productive of good, although the causes which are fatal to the author's reputation cannot fail to lessen his utility ; brevity and perspicuity

perspicuity being as needful to operate conviction on ordinary readers as to attract the approbation of scholars. He is conscious of prolixity, and endeavours to excuse it on the plea of writing in solitude; as if solitude and leisure were not highly favourable to polish and condensation.

The principal recommendations of the book consist in a spirit of benevolence, and in a practical knowledge of life. It contains also many examples of animated and eloquent description. We select the following from a passage in which Lorenzo, the preceptor, addresses Amadeus, the disciple, on the errors of youth:

‘I was of your age, and without having abused life had been efficient in turning it to the best account, when a dangerous illness attacked me; and reduced me to the point of death. The value of life then struck me forcibly; and its blessings presented themselves to my imagination, and seemed to reproach me for not having been sooner sensible of their value. Your heart, still harassed by misfortune, inquires, where is the pleasure of life? It is every where if you are good enough to deserve it. It is in the air which you breathe, in the light of day, in the perfume of these flowers, in the coolness of this limpid stream. It is to be found in all the sensations which are connected with your existence; in that desire to see, to learn, and to understand, which has accompanied you from your cradle; in that confused anticipation of futurity which your imagination embellishes; in that activity with which so many pleasing interests occupy your mind; it is in grief itself,—yes, in that melancholy which tenderness accompanies, which tears assuage, which friendship soothes, which virtue ennobles.

‘*Mirabeau* inherited an incomparable strength of mind and of constitution. His letters testify that warmth and overflow of spirits were perhaps never carried farther in a human being; and the consequence was an ungovernable impetuosity in his thoughts and schemes from his earliest youth. His principles were thus accommodated at an early age to his passions, and his heart had more ardour than tenderness. What vivacity; what fire! A full and rapid torrent would give but a feeble idea of its movements. With what impetuosity his sentiments rush together in his letters to *Madame de M.* Every sentence seems to contain as many thoughts as words. These are not letters; it is *Mirabeau* himself at the feet of her whom he loves, breathing out the delirium of his passion.—But their love had the most unhappy consequences. He violated law and decency; he drove his mistress into an abyss, into which he precipitated himself also, along with her and on her account; and finally, he forsook honourable principles, and became the publishing advocate of vicious sophistry. His example ought to be a terror to every man, who, without possessing the extreme ardour of *Mirabeau*, finds his soul the receptacle of keen and impetuous passions.

‘*Azais* applies his theory successively to a variety of the most interesting situations of life; such as the engagement of marriage,

marriage, the choice of friends, and the relation of parent and child. He examines the advantages and disadvantages that are incidental to the possession of fortune; to a retired or a busy life; to the condition of women; to infancy, youth, middle age, and the decline of life; and his object is to draw, from each of these, arguments for the establishment of his rule of the general compensation of evil by good. The most attractive part of the book is his picture of youth, which bears evident marks of being taken from the life. The visions of imagination on entering the busy throng, the splendid illusions of novelty, the languor by which they are succeeded, theedium attendant on an arksome situation, the desire of change, and the fluctuations between the shame of change and the aversion to remain, are all delineated in that vivid colouring which shews the writer to have passed, and recently passed, through the transitions which he describes: but even here we have the mortification to discover the same want of arrangement, clearness, and compression, the same diffuseness of style, the same vagueness of terms, and the same deficiency of erudition, as in the rest of the book. The reader is struck with the aptitude of particular remarks, and with the beauty of detached passages, but he has to purchase this gratification at the expence of travelling through many uninteresting pages. In one place the author mistakes the meaning of philosophical terms; in another, he deals in common-place; in a third, he is too refined. All these faults, various as they are, and apparently inconsistent with each other, arise from want of practice in composition; for it is sufficiently apparent that this is M. Azais's first appearance before the public. He promises another and a more extensive work on similar subjects, which we hope will be executed in such a manner as to give evidence of the benefit derived from practice, and a sense of the deficiencies of the present attempt.

When an author neglects to condense his reasonings into the shape of general conclusions, and when the words which he employs are so loose as to convey no distinct impression of his meaning, it is evidently idle to attempt to discuss the propriety of his principles. We shall confine ourselves, therefore, to extracting two passages which are among the most interesting of the book. The one contains the author's remarks on the influence of self-love on our actions, and the other applies these remarks to the history of a celebrated writer:

Self-love is planted in us by Providence as a characteristic feature of man. Inferior animals are actuated only to the preservation of themselves and their species: but we are so constituted as to have our

our happiness intimately connected with the opinion of our fellow creatures. Self-love requires to be corrected by a love for our species; the first step of which is to render them justice; and the next, to treat them with generosity. Self-love, rectified by judgment, is a salutary spring of action. In a man who is gifted with talents and sensibility without judgment, self-love is the source of many faults; and in a man who is devoid of sensibility and judgment, it is often the source of inconsistency and folly. It is generally to this class, who are more obedient to the suggestions of self-love than of impartiality, and who are contracted in their views, that the epithet *susceptible* is applied:—they are weak men, fond of governing others, and of being flattered.

‘Self-love is one of the principal links that connect men with each other. In consequence of its instigation, we do a number of things which eventually become the property of society, and co-operate to its rapid advancement. It contributes greatly to the promotion of arts and sciences. Those whose self-love is strongest are men of keen feelings and warm imagination.’—

‘(P. 154.) *Voltaire* possessed, it is universally admitted, the finest talents: but people are disposed to question the extent of his sensibility. In this they are wrong:—those works of imagination, those elevated sentiments, those striking situations which he has exhibited to the world, are not the effect of mere talents; they required a great and animated soul. The world, in forming an opinion of an author, does not take into account the different periods of his life. His earliest compositions are the fruit of silence and retirement; and during this meritorious part of his life, he generally remains unknown. These compositions bring him before the public, and he then becomes exposed to a thousand temptations. *Voltaire* allowed himself to depart greatly from his primitive character; and the impressions latterly made by his behaviour and his writings having been unfavourable, he will be always judged with prejudice. He had naturally an excellent heart; and his correspondence shews him to be free from reserve. In early life, he was a generous, indulgent, and faithful friend, and so far from envying the talents of others, he caused them to be valued and encouraged; we see no arrogance of opinion, no obstinacy, in estimating his own works. Every thing, however, has its advantages and disadvantages. *Voltaire* united to extraordinary talents a degree of self-love, which, whenever forsaken by judgment, could not fail to produce in him excessive jealousy, because it made him stand in need of universal homage. It has been truly said that his constitution was in a great measure feminine. A fertile imagination and exquisite feeling, without constancy,—extreme rapidity of conception, without that perseverance which leads to comprehensive views,—and above all, the thirst of reputation,—are the predominant characteristics of women, and they were likewise those of *Voltaire*.

‘The quickness with which he made progress to a certain point, in every thing to which he applied, induced him to believe that he might aim at excelling in every thing: but a wide difference prevails between the understanding which seizes and the understanding

which creates : the latter is *genius*. *Voltaire* had too much vivacity to be a man of genius ; and he wanted that taste for retirement which is indispensable to the completion of works of genius. The productions of genius therefore bitterly excited the envy of *Voltaire*, because they interfered with his claim to universal superiority. We accordingly see him constantly underrating the valuable productions of his contemporaries, and confining his praises to *Corneille*, *Racine*, and *Newton*, because these great men were no more. Such is the connection between our inclinations, whether good or bad. An effort to acquire a single virtue is a step towards the acquisition of all virtues ; while that weakness, which leads us into any one material fault, will impel us, if not restrained, into a multiplicity of faults.'

M. AZAÏS lays great stress on the improvements which follow the transition from youth to middle age. As a writer, we consider him in the former of these periods, and shall be happy to find, in his promised work, an exemplification of the customary amendment. Our strictures he can hardly call an evil, since it is one of his fundamental tenets (page 227.) that 'evil is only a name given by our weakness to that which, if duly improved, may be made productive of equivalent benefit.'

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ART. III. *Mémoires de la Comtesse DE LICHTENAU*, &c. ; i. e. Memoirs of the Countess DE LICHTENAU, written by herself ; containing secret Anecdotes of the Court of Prussia ; and accompanied by Letters from the Earl of Bristol, Sir Arthur Paget, Sir William and Lady Hamilton, Lady Templetown, the Chevalier de Saxe, M. Michali, the celebrated Lavater, &c. &c. Translated from the German. 2 Vols. 12mo. Paris. 1809. Reprinted for Colburn, London.

THE Countess DE LICHTENAU appears to have shared the fate which is so common to the favourites of monarchs, of receiving unbounded flattery and admiration during the period of her influence, and being exposed to unjust humiliation and groundless calumny when divested of power and patronage. On the very day on which her protector, Frederic William the Second, breathed his last, she was seized by order of his successor, committed to prison at Glogau, examined by a special commission respecting all the proceedings of her former life, and liberated at last only under a promise to abstain from making public the circumstances which her examination had brought to their knowledge. Shackled by this obligation as to the extent of her disclosures, but eager to vindicate her character, which was assailed by innumerable aspersions, she has here stated such facts as she thinks are demonstrative

demonstrative of her innocence concerning the particular subjects of accusation.

The first and by no means the lightest charge, in the fair author's estimation, is that of having commenced her career in the world as an *orange-woman*. To this calumny she replies with much indignation, that she was the daughter of a musician in the orchestra of Frederic the Great, and was recommended in her tenth year to the notice of the prince royal, who took great delight in forming her taste and improving her mind, and was encouraged by his uncle in the attachment which he felt for her at a maturer age. She also repels the scandalous suspicion, avowed by some of her libellers, of having betrayed her lover afterward into profligate company, debauched habits, and the shameless orgies of abandoned vice, by asserting that her parties were marked by decorum, and devoted to literature; and to prove that they could not deserve the unfavourable character which was imputed to them, she subjoins a list of respectable persons who constantly attended them: whose names, however, we never heard before. In order to manifest that she never perverted the King's attachment to any political purposes, she relates an anecdote which we shall presently report: but the facts by which she would establish her entire disinterestedness, and disregard of private emolument, seem to us nearly to warrant a directly opposite conclusion. None of the accusations brought against her affect her mind more strongly than that of having ministered to the pleasures of her royal lover as a *complaisante*; and she advances nothing improbable in declaring herself incapable of such methods of retaining his favour, though she admits that the connection between them was latterly no more than an union of friendship. It strikes her as preposterous indeed that she should ever have been charged with the odious offence of weaning the affections of the King from his family; and she regards the base statement of a mistress separating the husband from the wife as the last outrage, and the most incredible falsehood. On this subject, some curious facts are detailed. It was reported that the present King had expressed a violent abhorrence of the Countess, for preventing his access to his father, during his last illness; on which Madame DE L. exclaims:

'Good God, how is this possible? During the six weeks that preceded the death of Frederic William II., the queen, the prince royal and his august wife, frequently paid their duty to him. I have been witness to it; though I had the consideration, when I saw them enter the apartment, to withdraw, in order that they might converse freely with him. Towards the close of his malady, the King, finding himself weaker, and unable to express his wishes but

by a pressure of the hand, in fact ordered me to remain, because I knew better than his family the necessities of his situation. When the Queen saw him for the last time, she appeared in great emotion : I re-conducted her majesty to her coach, and she told me with kindness that she would never forget the touching attentions that I paid to her husband."

Returning to the same subject, the Countess remarks ;

"The author of the "Character of Frederic William II." attacks me in the most sensible point, in saying that the prince royal, the present King, was indignant at the pride and insolence exhibited by me towards the Queen his mother. Alas ! that respectable princess is no more ! Were she alive, she would be the first to defend me against this new calumny. Very far from conducting myself towards her with insolence and pride, which would suppose me to be afflicted with madness, I felt for her august person only love and respect ; and if the supreme rank which she occupied had not checked the manifestation of my sentiments for her, how often should I have yielded to the pleasure of displaying them ! Whatever may have been said, that amiable princess did not deem me unworthy of her favour. She came frequently to me at Charlottenburg, and passed whole hours there ; during which she gave full scope to the good will which she bore to me. The superintendant of her household first communicated to me the agreeable intelligence that she had been so good as to sit for her picture for me. A short time afterward, an express brought her portrait to Pyrmont to the King, who presented it to me from her. I had previously received from her own hand a ring with the device, *Gage d'amitié*. She afterward sent me bracelets engraved with these words, *Donnés par l'amitié*. Alas ! that valued portrait was taken from me, but I still possess the ring and the bracelets, and shall preserve them to my latest moment, as precious memorials of the best and most virtuous of princesses. Why have I not still those letters full of confidence, which at different times she wrote to me ! with them I should at once confound the odious accusation of having deserved ill at her hands. Ah ! among all my losses, that of her letters will ever be the object of my liveliest regret."

Having little skill in the *bienséance* of arrangements of this nature between the lawful wives and the happy mistresses of illustrious personages, we shall offer no observations on the nature of this accommodating friendship : but it may be proper to notice that all these memorials of regard appear to have been presented during the lifetime of the King ; and that the fact of a confidential correspondence rests wholly on the authority of the Countess.

In refuting the accusation of having sold Prussia to England, Madame DE L. is not only anxious to prove her own intorruptibility, but also to exculpate herself from the offence of having opposed that French political influence, which is now so fatally predominant in her country. The story which we have promised to lay before our readers will shew the principles  
on



on which continental alliances were formed and maintained by Mr. Pitt during the war of the revolution :

‘ A short time before the peace of Basle, in 1795, when I was about to quit Italy, I received from Lord Henry Spencer, ambassador from England to the court of Prussia, a note by which he requested a private interview on an affair of the highest importance. I ought to apprise my readers that I knew Lord Henry Spencer but imperfectly, and that he seldom came to my house. I sent an immediate answer to him, that I would receive him the same day between seven and eight in the evening. He was exact to the appointment. After having long spoken on indifferent things, he came to the important point, and told me that he knew from good authority that the King was intending to make peace with France. He painted to me in the liveliest colours the mischief which such an alliance would produce to Prussia ; spoke to me of *a subsidy of several millions of piastres which England proposed to give to the latter power* ; and supported his assertion by several reasons which I no longer remember. My reply was short and distinct ; *Never*, I told him, *had I interfered in political affairs*. He did not consider himself as defeated, and not only begged me to procure for him, without the knowledge of ministers, an audience of the King, but also to employ all the power which he supposed me to enjoy over the King’s mind, in order to divert him from concluding peace with France. He added that *he was charged, in case this negotiation should turn out according to the wish of his court, to give me a hundred thousand guineas, as a proof of its gratitude ; a step which it (i. e. the court of England) “ took with so much the more satisfaction, because it was informed that the King had not provided for my future support.”* He told me too that I might, without scruple, accept his offers, since England asked nothing but what was for the advantage of Prussia. The offer of so large a sum appeared to me suspicious. I was warmly offended by it, and drily replied that I could not conceive how Lord Henry Spencer could propose such an intrigue to me, as my past conduct had evinced both my disinterestedness and my want of influence. I did, however, in conclusion, promise to request for him a private audience of the King. In truth, the next day, I gave the King an exact account of the conference which I had with Lord Henry Spencer. The King smiled, and said that he would grant the English ambassador an audience, but that he would make no change in his resolutions.’

In consequence of the promise of secrecy to which we before alluded, these memoirs comprise a comparatively small portion of the writer’s history ; and it will be seen that the facts stated in her justification depend almost exclusively on her own affirmation. Those friends, to whose character she appeals, as a proof of the excellence of her own, are too little known to us to admit of our forming any judgment on the value of their testimony. The letters of a great many private

acquaintances are added, in a second volume, to manifest the high respectability of her connections : but the reader will not always form this conclusion from the perusal of them ; while he must unequivocally condemn, in numerous instances, the wanton and useless violation of private confidence. The epistolary effusions of the late Earl of Bristol, Bishop of Derry, will be read with the greatest amusement and surprize. They are marked by a style of rattling and enthusiastic gallantry, sanctioned perhaps by the manners of the last age, and still permitted in the language of lively old men. His Lordship travelled with the Countess over many parts of Italy, and invited her to join him and take a voyage up the Nile in a *spronaro*, having then acquired that *Egyptomania* which afterward became so general, and threatened at one time to replunge our chairs and our tables into barbarism. This interesting tour was never made, but the friendship of the two persons appears to have suffered no diminution during the life of Lord Bristol. We are therefore at a loss to conceive how the Countess could excuse herself for charging a dignified ecclesiastic with atheism, and could declare that ‘ one of his letters, one of the longest written by him, was a treatise on irreligion.’ This dangerous treatise is however suppressed ; and we, for our own part, are resolved never to convict any person of writing atheism, unless we see the very paper from which the accusation is drawn. It is a breach of good manners and morality, very promptly suspected and easily alleged : but, when brought to the proof, the slightest variation of the phrase may give a totally opposite effect. We shall always protest, in the strongest and most general terms, against every law that makes words into treason, under any circumstances.

The Countess DE LICHTENAU appears to have undergone many calamities since the death of the King, besides the persecutions of the court. She is at this moment not only the widowed mistress of a great monarch, but the widowed wife of a living husband, a young musician whom she married in her old age, and who afterward deserted her, from avowed weariness. Neither does she appear to have been able to do much good to her own family, since she justifies herself against the charge of having done too much in their favour, by whimsically printing a begging letter from her own distressed and dying sister, who solicits some small relief in her last moments. Another letter is addressed by the Countess herself to the Count *de Stolberg*, the husband of her daughter, in which she assails his want of generosity, and even of common honesty, respecting pecuniary arrangements in the most angry terms of reproach. On the whole, these volumes betray a peculiar deficiency

deficiency of feeling and delicacy, and are almost destitute of the curious historical information which they might naturally have been expected to contain.

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ART. IV. *Alphonse, ou le Fils Naturel, &c. i. e.* Alphonso, or the Natural Son, by Madame DE GENLIS. 12mo. 3 Vols. Paris. 1809. Reprinted in London for Dulau and Co.

TO offer the remotest hint that the talents of a veteran author are on the verge of declension has ever appeared to us the most painful of all the arduous duties which are attached to the office of a literary censor ; and in the famous anecdote of Gil Blas and the Archbishop of Toledo, the plain-spoken courage of the secretary is much more surprising than the indignation of the patron. When the mind is habitually indulging in the pleasures of invention and composition, in the most gratifying exercise of its own faculties, and in the hope of increasing reputation with the world, how can it brook the cold admonition that would extinguish these intellectual enjoyments, and repress this self-rewarded activity ? Yet perhaps it would be less mortifying to receive the suggestion from the lips of a disinterested adviser, than to collect it from the universal neglect and indifference of the public.

The *Natural Son* of this lady's advanced years is the namesake of a legitimate offspring, the fruit of her better days. The *Alphonse*, who has captivated the imagination and awakened the understanding of so many youthful readers, as the hero of *La Fée de la Nature*, (see the *Veillées du Château*,) was one of the most lively, rational, and agreeable companions whom we have ever had the good fortune to encounter : whose singularities were made subservient to the principles of sound good sense, and whose wanderings all terminated in some intelligible and useful object. We are sorry to say that the left-handed Creole, who now stands at our tribunal, is entirely deficient in all the qualities which recommended his elder brother to our esteem. Wild without romance, excentric without originality, and violent without sensibility, his warmest emotions excite no sympathy ; and his most extravagant enterprises, while they perpetually shock and disgust, want even the easily attained merit of producing either interest or surprise.

It is very singular that the mind of Madame DE GENLIS, in approaching the maturity of age, should have become more enamoured of the puerile dreams of fancy, which were never its natural element, and less attentive to that judgment for

which she was at an early period remarkably distinguished : but so it is. The vagaries which compose the tale before us would indicate a strangely distorted imagination, even in a girl of fourteen, who steals a few hours of leisure from the duties of a boarding-school, to compose her first romance. At the same time, we cannot deny even to these volumes the merit of great shrewdness in observing character, and peculiar felicity in sketching the minor foibles of society. We shall dismiss them from our consideration, when we have selected, as a slight specimen of these excellencies, the *conversations* of the Marquise de \*\*\* at Besançon :

‘ The Marchioness, a week after her return from Paris, opened her house, and gave her first assembly. The company was prodigiously numerous : but a general awkwardness reigned among the ladies, who were two years behind the fashions, the *ton*, and the manners of the day, in the court and the capital. The Marchioness and her daughter were examined with avidity ; and how ill drest did the others think themselves, compared with these living images of the ladies of Versailles !’ [ Here follows a description of the fashions, somewhat too particular for our comprehension. ] ‘ All this apparel seemed to be in so perfect a taste, that many ladies ventured to predict that the fashion at last was settled, and would change no more, because it was impossible for the wit of man to devise anything more agreeable or more beautiful.

‘ Music and dancing were introduced, because the Marchioness wished her daughter to shine as the pupil of *Balbâtre*, (an organist) and of *Vestris*. It must be owned that Miss Aurora, in spite of the celebrity of her master, had no success on the harpsichord. She was wholly destitute of taste and ear, and, to the great satisfaction of the assembly, she was absolutely eclipsed by an humble and timid pupil of the organist of the cathedral : but, in the dance, Aurora took her revenge. Her secret spleen gave her an air of animation which did not belong to her ; and her triumphant manner in taking her place intimidated all the other dancers : but how great was the general dismay, when the musician, instructed the day before by Aurora, played a country-dance which was unknown to the whole company ! All were motionless, except Aurora, and she darted on, followed by her bewildered partner, who knew not what to do. Aurora stopped with an expression of surprise ; the guests were forced to acknowledge that they knew neither the figure nor the tune of this dance ; and the Marchioness exclaimed from her seat that, for the last six months, nothing else had been danced at Paris ! What consternation, what confusion, these terrible words produced ! It was observed, too, that the Marchioness and her daughter looked at one another with a sort of compassionate smile. Yet so great was the desire to become acquainted with this fashionable country-dance, that Aurora was humbly intreated to teach the figure of it : but she gravely answered that it was too difficult. In vain she proposed two or three that were equally unknown ; she assumed at last an air of the

the greatest distress; and it was necessary to submit to dance the *Madelon*, *Friguet*, the *Visites*, the *Petits Paniers*, &c. Aurora, incapable of resolving to develop all her talent in these gothic country-dances, in general only walked down them, with the most disdainful and *non-chalant* demeanour: but, notwithstanding her negligence, she had an air of superiority, her elbows were raised, her arms elevated, with an ease and manner that appeared inimitable; and from time to time she executed a few steps, of which it was impossible to refrain from secretly admiring the elegance. The other young persons danced with so little hope of success, they were so much ashamed of knowing only the old figures which had long been forgotten at Paris, and they so much dreaded the critical and sneering look of Aurora and the Marchioness, that it was impossible to form a set for the second dance.'

We shall ever regret that talents, so decidedly formed for the comic delineation of life and manners, have been so often misemployed on sentimental and extravagant romance. Madame DE GENLIS' heroics lead us to speculate on the sort of tragedy that would have proceeded from the muse of *Foots*.

ART. V. *Voyage en Espagne, &c.*; i. e. A Journey into Spain by the Chevalier *St. Gervais*, a French Officer; with the various occurrences attending his Travels, by M. DE LANTIER, Knight of the Order of St. Louis. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 879. Paris. 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co. Price 1l. sewed.

WE had occasion to shew, in our last Appendix, by more than one example, the practices to which booksellers and book-making authors have recourse in France. Their plan is, like that of the *Curls* of London, to take hold of some subject which strongly occupies the public attention, and to issue a variety of publications relating to it: publications generally containing little more than what has been said over and over again, but prepared in that plausible and sparkling style which suits the superficial taste of French readers. The journey or rather pretended journey into Spain, which is now before us, comes literally under this general description: but we are induced to extend our account of it to some length for two reasons:—to afford our readers an example of the manner in which books are at present manufactured in France, and to embrace an opportunity of communicating some of our own ideas on the state of Spain, before she is forgotten and sunken (for a time at least) into a French province.

M. DE LANTIER illustrates his book with an engraving of himself; which leaves no room to distrust the painter's impartiality and plain dealing; since it is one of the most rueful countenances that we have chanced to see for some time. Many years  
have

have passed since our critical acquaintance with M. LANTIER commenced, and the present portrait confirms our notion that the gay season of his life has long elapsed. The glow of youth seems to have flown from the cheek and vivacity from the eye of this antiquated candidate for fame, yet in his writings he continues to labour stoutly for the praise of briskness and vigour.

After an introduction containing some unsuccessful attempts at wit, and a few of those common-place Latin quotations which abound throughout the book, the Chevalier *Saint Gervais* is made to enter on his history. This fictitious personage represents himself as a Calvinist of the south-west of France, and a younger son of a family whose profession, from time immemorial, had been that of arms. As love and war have always gone together, the youthful chevalier must necessarily fall in love at the early age of sixteen. On writing to his father for leave to espouse the fair object of his affection, the veteran sent him a laconic reply. "I have obtained for you," said he, "a lieutenancy in the regiment in which I served during thirty-five years. Go and *espouse glory*—she will be a faithful mistress to you, if you are faithful in your services to her." Thus obliged to relinquish the lady, he joined the French army in Germany, and was employed during the inglorious war against the King of Prussia, which began in 1756. On the conclusion of peace, he returned to the Pyrenees; and passing the towns of Pau and Tarbes, and describing the beautiful scenery around them, he proceeds to repair the ravages of war on his constitution, by drinking the waters of Barèges. He is captivated with the picturesque situation of this town; which stands in the midst of mountains, and is noted as well for the resort of invalids, as for the primitive manners of the inhabitants of the adjacent country; who have their winter habitations in sheltered spots, and their summer cabins in the higher grounds. During the warm months, their sheep are turned to pasture on the mountains, one person taking care of the flocks of the whole hamlet, and leaving his neighbours at leisure for harvest work. At the end of the autumn, each repairs to his winter-residence, and lives on the stock of provisions which he had laid up against the season in which snow and tempests cut off all communication.

So romantic a neighbourhood could not fail to inspire a Frenchman with love. The former mistress of the chevalier's youthful affections had deliberately married in his absence, but he soon found another in an adorable Cecilia, who had attended a sick mother to the waters of Barèges. 'Her first look,' he says, 'fired my heart; and her sweet and melodious voice completed

the conquest.' Unfortunately, on an explanation taking place, it proved that the lady was engaged, and even on the point of marriage. The residence of Barèges now became insupportable to him; he hurried away; and after some interval, he rejoined his regiment at Perpignan, where in due time this inflammable gentleman was captivated by the charms of a fair Spaniard, named Seraphina. Her heavenly figure and her sparkling eyes shone on him all at once with such lustre, that he immediately asked himself whether this was not 'an angel sent down in pity to mortals.' When she walked abroad, and displayed the graces of her person, he pronounced that 'she could be nothing less than a goddess.' He was so happy as to make an impression on this adorable creature before her departure for Spain; and, at some distance of time, he set out on a journey through that country in quest of his fair enslaver. It is this expedition which forms the subject of the work.

A journey from Perpignan to Cordova, the residence of the admired Seraphina, includes several of the most interesting cities in Spain; Barcelona, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, and others; and the object of the book is to give a representation of Spain and Spanish manners in the attractive shape of narrative, rather than in the dry form of didactic explanation. Instead of merely apprizing us by description of the existence of particular characters and usages, the plan of the author is to surround the traveller with living personages, and to fix the reader's attention on scenes of personal intercourse and actual business. This is his favourite method of describing a country; his "*Travellers in Switzerland*," which we had occasion to notice in Vol. XLI. N. S. page 417., being on a similar plan. Our primary objection to this kind of writing consists in the perplexity which it causes to the reader in distinguishing real from fictitious personages; an objection that applied very strongly to his work on Switzerland, in which he introduced several real characters. To the present volumes it has also some application: but a more grievous charge against them arises from the author's poverty of local knowledge and unhappy prolixity of detail in the imaginary part of his narrative. We have had a laborious search in quest of a few passages which might combine the purpose of instruction to our readers, with the advantage of affording specimens of the book, and we have been able to find only one of that description; a passage in which an account is given of the once promising settlement of La Carolina, situated amid the chain of mountains known by the name of Sierra Morena. It is as follows: (Vol. II. p. 309.)

'In pursuing our route from Cordova, we passed the Guadalquivir over a very fine bridge. We were now on the borders of the country

country so famous in ancient times under the name of Bética, but resembling, at the present day, a vast field laid waste by an army. However, in approaching the town of Anduxar, we found several well cultivated plains, and saw great numbers of melons and citrons. At Guarda Romana, (pronounced Guarraman,) we were surprised to find good buildings of hewn stone, standing four and four together, and have small gardens in front. We perceived flower-pots in the casements, and cradles with spinning wheels before the doors. The men were at work in the gardens, the children were playing about, or driving sheep, and the women, neatly dressed, were busy sewing, spinning, or suckling their infants. "This country," says my poetical companion, "is *lieta, diletta*, (cheerful and delightful;) it is classic ground, and much surpasses the valley in Judæa, watered by the brook of Cedron. Were I King of Spain, I would people this canton with shepherds and shepherdesses of Arcadia and Sicily." And as for me, I would transport hither able bodied men, instead of sending them to work in the mines of Mexico and Peru.

"This colony was a mixture of Germans, French, and Spaniards. We found sitting before the door of a house an old Alsacian; whose grey hairs and the serenity and cheerfulness of whose manner induced us to approach him. "I was," he said, "one of the original founders of the colony: we were induced to come here by Don Pablo Olavide, to the number of six thousand, and all Germans: this country, which had been loudly extolled to us, was at that time a mere solitude, covered with woods of fir, which were the resort of wolves and robbers, and the terror of travellers. We could not even find water to drink; and consequently, in the first years, a great many of our number died of melancholy and of epidemic complaints. I escaped death: but I toiled all day like a slave, and often bathed with my tears the morsel of bread which I ate; and I saw my wife perish at my side, from misery and excessive fatigue, along with one child of two years old. At last Providence took pity on the new settlers, and you observe that, after immense toils and hardships, the colony is beginning to prosper. The plan was to give each family in the outset a pick-axe, spade, hatchet, hammer, scythe, and plough, along with some earthen-ware, blankets, and sheeting. To these were added in the sequel, to each family, two cows, five sheep, and five she-goats; with poultry, grain, and vegetables." We congratulated the old man on his happiness. "Call it my repose," said he, "for happiness I expect only in heaven."

"In continuing our road, the ground became imperceptibly higher, and the views more varied and more romantic. As we came near to Carolina, we stopped on an eminence, where we had a view of this new settlement. We saw in all directions fertile meadows covered with cows, horses, colts, and mules; and we perceived humble dwellings, where recent settlers, forgetting an ungrateful country, had come to adopt a new one under a more mild and genial atmosphere. This town stands on a fine elevation, and contains several wide streets, crossing each other at right angles, and ornamented with statues and bridges. The houses are plain and uniform; the market is kept in an octagonal space, surrounded by a piazza, and situated in the middle



dle of the town; while the platform of the hill is laid out in kitchen gardens, and planted with avenues of elms. The neighbouring pleasure-gardens are beautiful. The new-ploughed lands promise abundance; wells are dug in all directions; and the streamlets from the high grounds are now directed into reservoirs, and made subservient to the purposes of irrigation. Five villages are building; in the middle of each is a small church, with its parsonage, a prison, a council-room, and a small hospital.

On inquiring the laws and regulations of this new establishment, I was informed that a grant of twenty or thirty years was made to each family, on condition of their bringing the land into a state of cultivation within ten years. They pay no taxes till after the expiration of this period; tithes become due at the end of four years; and the settlers, or their heirs or servants, cannot quit during ten years the portion of ground which has been granted to them. If they wish to fix themselves there at the end of that period, the ground is let to them on lease, and they pay a small quit-rent. Government furnishes grain for seed, but after harvest an equal quantity must be repaid. Government moreover supplies some agricultural implements, and defrays the costs of building the shells of the houses. Each district has a school standing near its church, where the children are instructed in the Spanish language, and in the doctrines of Christianity: but their teachers must go no farther, it being laid down as a rule that a labourer should know nothing but religion and moral duty, with the use of his hands.—On walking about, we found that this tract, lately barren or deformed with briars, was rapidly advancing in cultivation; it was covered with a variety of productions, flowers, vegetables, grain, and flax: vines, olives, mulberries, apples, and cherries, were all in a course of progress, and promised future crops to the cultivators, most of whom had enlarged their houses and improved their gardens. “Ease and tranquillity,” said I, “seem to reign throughout, but I fear they will not continue; I hear already the murmur of discontent;” whence does it arise?—“From the restlessness of human nature; we love our ease, and dislike the labour which is necessary to procure it; we aspire after comfort, and know not how to enjoy it. Besides, we fear that government will neglect us; and we dread the resentment of the monks: they are implacable. Don Pablo Olavide procured the royal sanction to an article which forbade the establishment of a convent of either sex, under whatever denomination, and directed that all spiritual matters should be regulated by vicars and curates. We fear that this clause will prove the overthrow of the settlement: Count Olavide himself apprehends a storm: intrigues are in agitation; the monks are in the field.” The prophecy was unfortunately too true. A Spanish grandee, in the capacity of superior alguazil of the Inquisition, arrested M. Olavide, and carried him to a prison of the Holy Office. His books and papers were seized; and his trial was carried on during two years in great secrecy. He was obliged to appear before this nocturnal tribunal, clothed in yellow, and with a wax taper in his hand. His judges amounted to the number of forty, and were a mixed assemblage of grandees, generals, monks,

monks, and ecclesiastics; his indictment charged him with intimacy with *Voltaire* and *Rousseau*, with having spoken the language of free-thinkers, and with ridiculing the fathers of the church. The verdict followed:—it declared him a heretic, confiscated his property, and condemned him to be imprisoned during eight years in a monastery, for the purpose of doing penance and reading pious books. However, on making a solemn abjuration of heresy, he was formally absolved from the verdict, and permitted to seek tranquillity in France.'

After having extracted this specimen of the work,—the most favourable that either of the volumes afforded us,—we will not confine the attention of our readers any longer to M. LANTIER, nor to the tedious details of his hero; who, after all his impatience in journeying, comes too late to espouse the inconstant Seraphina, and is forced to seek conjugal comfort in the affections of a Valencian lady. We proceed now to the second part of our article; the communication of some general remarks on the condition of Spain, prior to *Bonaparte's* usurpation.

*Literature.* The claim of Spain to rank eminent scholars among its natives is of very antient date; Quintilian, Lucan, Silius Italicus, Martial, and Seneca the tragedian, having all been born in that country; and the ignorance diffused over Europe, through the long period of the dark ages, was in some measure lessened in this region by the comparative civilization of the Moors. How greatly the sciences of arithmetic and algebra are indebted to them is well known; and they paid attention likewise to geography, experimental philosophy, geometry, natural history, astronomy, chemistry, and agriculture. In the Christian part of Spain, the luminary of the dark ages was Alphonso X., surnamed the *Sage*, who flourished in the 13th century. The æra at which the successful cultivation of letters began in Spain, as well as in the rest of Europe, was the 15th century, after the extinction of the separate monarchies by the marriage of Ferdinand with Isabella. They continued to prosper during the brilliant reign of Charles Vth, and still more under Philip II.; who, gloomy and bigotted as he was, took pleasure in patronizing literature. After the age of his successor, Philip III., the taste for elegant literature declined, and was succeeded by a predilection for oriental pomposity and bombast. This lasted more than a century; and not much above fifty years have passed since the efforts of some eminent men for its reform have begun to be effectual. One of the most active contributors to the revival of lost taste in Spain was Feyjoo, a Benedictine monk, whose writings embraced a great variety of topics. He published his thoughts in the shape of essays, and has been called by some persons

persons the Spanish Addison. His *Teatro Critico Universal*, and his *Cartas eruditas y curiosas*, are both works of merit, and dedicated to a common object, the refutation of vulgar errors. Divinity, law, medicine, and philosophy, all successively engaged his attention.—The pride of Spain for works of imagination is Cervantes, as Mariana is for history : but with these deserve to be mentioned many other eminent names, as Quevedo, Saavedra, Solis, Zurita, Augustine, and Herrera. Quevedo exercised his satirical powers, through the medium of various kinds of writing, on the errors of his countrymen ; Saavedra exhibited to them the picture of a political and literary republic ; Solis wrote a narrative of the conquest of Mexico ; Zurita, an Arragonese, composed the history of his mother-country ; Herrera related the conquest of America ; and Antony Augustine, archbishop of Tarragona, directed his attention to several departments of history. These names belong to the former æra of Spanish literature, the reigns of Philip II., and III. : but the last century, or rather, half-century, has also been distinguished by candidates for historic fame. Exclusively of other works, Masdeus' *Historia critica de España*, and Andres' *Origen, progressor, y estado actual de toda la literatura*, deserve to be mentioned as books of standing reputation.

In *Oratory*, that art which so speedily appears under the enjoyment of political liberty, the Spaniards cannot boast of having excelled. It was extinguished in their Cortes and other public assemblies, by the usurpations of the royal authority, at the epoch in which the revival of letters might have raised it to distinction ; and it was excluded from the bar, as we shall shortly observe, by the absurd proceedings of their law-courts. The pulpit remained ; and Spain can lay claim to some eloquent preachers, among whom Francis de Toledo, John de Avila, and Lewis de Granada, are the most conspicuous.

*Poetry* was not restrained by the same shackles which eloquence endured ; and in this kind of composition, accordingly, the imagination of the Spaniards has rioted in all its luxuriance. The provençal poetry was early cultivated in Catalonia and Valencia, but the latter part of the 16th and the beginning of the 17th century have been accounted the Augustan age of the Spanish Muse. After that period, the taste of their poets was perverted, and this class of literary men have shewn more pertinacity than their brethren in adhering to national habits. They have by no means adopted foreign improvement with that modest consciousness of the want of it, which has been apparent in the members of several other departments of literature. — The Spanish

Spanish stage deserves attention as an index to the national taste. It began to shake off its primitive rudeness in the 15th century; and at the end of the 16th, it was adorned by the distinguished names of Cervantes, Calderon, and Lope de Vega. Under such guidance as this, it easily took the lead of the cotemporary theatres of Europe: but it has by no means maintained this early ascendancy. While the drama in other countries has been in a course of progressive improvement, that of Spain has been stationary or retrograde. The clamour of the mob has given the law on the Spanish stage, and has forced their best writers, even Cervantes himself, to fashion their works on a coarse model. Their dramas are of various kinds; the sacred, in which paradise and purgatory, angels and devils, were represented in motley assemblage; the heroic, replete with supernatural adventures and romantic intrigues; and in the third place, the dramas of character, which contain pictures of Spanish manners, and venture to pourtray their national pride and extravagant sensibility. The last are by much the best of their serious pieces; and of their light productions, the most entertaining and instructive are the *Saynettes*, or comedies of a single act, representing with singular felicity the habits of the common people. It is usual to introduce these short entertainments between the acts of their dramas, and the Spanish performers excel in such appeals to the risible faculties of their audience. The radical error of the Spanish theatre is a predilection for the marvellous, and for buffoonery; — a predilection which seems to give way by very slow steps to the progress of a better taste. Their mode of acting also partakes of the national taste for hyperbole. It is by much too violent; their recitation seems to be a feat of strength; and a rapid succession of cries and shrieks is expected by the audience as a matter of course.

In regard to the *Elegant Arts*, the Spaniards have some pretensions to notice in architecture and to eminence in sculpture: but their principal distinction has been in painting. The excellence of their artists consists in an accurate imitation of nature, but their most finished pieces have been on sacred subjects. Like other elegant pursuits, painting had declined since the reign of Philip III., but the labours of Mengs have contributed to revive it, and to give fame to the Spanish school of the 18th century. The number of Spanish universities was formerly twenty-four, and still amounts to seventeen. The professors and scholars are very numerous: but their plan of education is so prejudiced and antiquated, that very little good is effected in the way of education. The antient glory of Salamanca has disappeared, and Valencia has been in later times

times a favourite university. That city has also an academy for the fine arts. Madrid has a similar institution, and Seville has an academy for painting.

*Government.* Since the extinction of the influence of the Cortes in the 17th century, the governing powers have almost entirely centered in the crown. Public business was transacted by different councils nominated by the crown, and holding their sittings in the capital: such were the council of the Indies, the council of Castile, the chamber of Castile, &c. Under this sort of constitution, the regal power could be little checked either by the people or the aristocracy. The shades of nobility in Spain are various, according to the particular usages of different provinces: but the whole number of grandees is about 130; and that of marquisses, counts, and viscounts, about 530. To calculate the inferior ranks, who are termed noble, would be a task of some labour: they consist of several denominations; the *Generosos*, or old families not holding any rank from the crown; the *Caballeros*, persons ennobled by letters patent; and the *Ciudadanos*, ennobled citizens, such as jurats, consuls, or their descendants. The doctors of law and medicine enjoy personal nobility, but cannot transmit it to their posterity. *Ricos hombres*, *infanzones*, and *escuderos*, or esquires, are all titles of rank: but in Castile only one kind of rank exists, the *Hidalgo*, the title of *Don* being indiscriminately bestowed in that province, while in Catalonia and Valencia it is restricted to the highest of the Spanish military officers. The number of officers who have risen from the ranks is very considerable, it having been usual to appropriate every third vacancy to serjeants, who continued members of the army, while a large proportion of the more affluent officers were in the habit of relinquishing the service. — Justice was administered in Spain by royal *Audencias*, or courts composed of a greater or smaller number of judges. These courts were seven in number, and held their sittings respectively at Barcelona, Valencia, Saragossa, Oviedo, Corunna, Seville, and at Caceres for the province of Estremadura. Their jurisdiction comprehended civil as well as criminal cases; and in questions exceeding a small sum, an appeal lay from their decision to the chanceries of Valladolid and Granada. The definitive appeal was to the council of Castile, which was at once the supreme judicial tribunal and the sovereign's privy council. Besides those which we have mentioned, a great number of inferior courts of justice are established in Spain. Each town or village has a first magistrate under the title of *corregidor*, superior *alcalde*, or simple *alcalde*, whose duty is the superintendence of the police. Great abuses in the administration of justice

in Spain arise from the exorbitant privileges of the *escriuano* or attornies, who are intitled to receive all declarations, depositions, rejoinders, &c. of the parties, without the interposition and even in the absence of the judges: while also by a singular perversion of equity and common sense, the defendant is forced to employ the same attorney as the plaintiff. The attornies have thus an opportunity of drawing out their proceedings to an extravagant length; and as each magistrate has a separate court, the choice of the courts, in places which have more than one, remains with the attornies, who can thus turn judicial fees into whatever channel they chuse. The consequence is that the men, to whom it belongs to controul the attornies, are thus, in a great measure, rendered dependent on them, so that the latter are often permitted to practise extortion with impunity. It is a rule in Spanish law that the losing party shall not pay his adversary's costs;—a rule worthy of such a system, and devised for the purpose of extracting the largest possible sums from the pockets of both sides.

*Bonaparte's* usurpation will probably effect a great revolution in the Spanish church, its wealth being too powerful an attraction to escape the watchful eye of the new government. The Archbishop of Toledo, perhaps the richest ecclesiastical dignitary in Europe, had an income of 125,000*l.* sterling; and although none of the other members of the Spanish church approached this princely revenue, several possessed above 20,000*l.* sterling per annum. In regard to numbers, Spain included in 1788, 22,000 nuns, 49,000 monks, and 60,000 priests of all descriptions. Numerous as they were, the proportion of these unproductive members to the whole nation was not so large in Spain as in France before the revolution; and it was in a state of progressive diminution, in consequence of the prohibition to receive novices, and of the union of several orders together. The Pópes had great power, in respect of both church-patronage and discipline, until the year 1753; when a *concordat* transferred the principal part of it to the crown of Spain. They continued after this to possess some share of the patronage, but they had no longer any interference with matters of temporal discipline. The ecclesiastical courts in Spain were still able to exercise too extensive a jurisdiction for a civilized age, but the severity of the inquisition has been over-rated, as far at least as it regards modern times.

*Commercial and political circumstances.* — The intercourse between Spain and her colonies was long restricted by the blind rapacity of government to a single harbour, which, in the first instance, was Seville and afterward Cadiz. Every thing was jealously

jealously watched by the crown. The galleons were government-vessels, and sailed only at certain seasons in fleets; the register-ships were vessels freighted by merchants, and were permitted to sail in the intervals of the periodical fleets. The latter were first established in 1739, and proved a considerable amelioration of the former illiberal plan: but the colonial intercourse still remained clogged with ruinous restrictions. Monthly packets were first established in 1764; and in 1778 the alarming example of the troubles in the English colonies induced the Spanish court to widen the channels of intercourse between the mother-country and her trans-atlantic possessions, by admitting other ports, as well as Cadiz, to a participation of the traffic. These ports were Seville, Carthagena, Alicant, Barcelona, St. Andero, Corunna, and Gijon. The beneficial effects of this increased freedom were rapid both at home and abroad. In 1778, the mercantile marine of Spain consisted of only a few hundred sail, half Biscayans and half Catalonians: but of late years, Catalonia alone has had above a thousand sail. Still, much is wanting to carry the Spanish mercantile marine to its proper extent, since even the coasting trade is conducted in a great measure under foreign flags. The inland trade, not having been stimulated by the activity of foreigners, nor favoured by the protecting care of government, remains in a state of stagnation which would seem incredible to a native of England.

In regard to Spanish America, the increase of population and industry has been most conspicuous in Mexico. Peru has made a much less rapid progress. Of 35 millions of piastres annually supplied by the American mines, Mexico affords 22

Peru	-	-	-	-	6
New Granada	-	-	-	-	2
Chili	-	-	-	-	2
Buenos Ayres, including Potosi,	-	-	-	-	3
					—
Total					35

The working of mines being, like other branches of trade, in great measure a private speculation, has increased in proportion to the extension of colonial wealth and population. Of the revenue accruing to the crown from the colonies, much less arises from the per centage on the produce of the mines than is commonly supposed. Mixed taxes are levied here as well as elsewhere; and the tribute of the mines does not exceed a sixth part of the whole. Two-thirds of the revenue are absorbed in colonial charges; the remaining third is remitted home. The cruelty of the Spaniards towards the Indians, and the consequent decrease in Indian population, have

both been greatly exaggerated. Charges of this sort were applicable chiefly to the age of the discovery and conquest. At present, the number of men employed in mining in the province of Mexico, which bears so large a proportion to the whole, does not exceed 30,000; the occupation is not accounted unhealthy, and is not compulsory on the inhabitants.

We are accustomed in this country to hear of financial transactions for such prodigious sums, that an English reader is apt to smile on being told that the national debt of Spain, — that debt which has embarrassed her treasury and impeded her military exertions, — does not exceed twenty millions sterling. This reminds us of the alarm expressed in France in 1800, when it was found that a projected loan of 200,000l. sterling had failed. Such is the difference, in financial revenues, between a country of confirmed industry, and one of indolence or dissipation.

Wheat and barley are the kinds of corn which are principally cultivated in Spain, and the quality of both is good. Oats are less an object of attention, being used as food for persons in some provinces only. Before the irruption of the French, *positos*, or magazines of corn stored up against an unfavourable season, were distributed through the country; which were replenished by a contribution in grain from every occupier of ground, in proportion to the extent of his farm. In the succeeding year, this grain was delivered to him on receiving a quantity somewhat larger of new grain; and in the event of scarcity, the corn thus stored up was retailed at a moderate price, either for seed or consumption. The number of *positos* throughout the whole country was about five thousand. The Moors were assiduous in directing the waters to the purpose of fertilizing the ground; and the provinces which remained long in their possession are, to this day, the best irrigated in Spain, so little improvement has been added by the labours of their successors. Indolence is thus the bane of Spain in agriculture, in commerce, and in political enterprise. It is this unhappy failing which has paralyzed their efforts against France, and which, notwithstanding their inveterate antipathy to that country, will enable *Bonaparte* to overcome their resistance and to bind them in his chains. They possess courage, and are remarkable for invincible constancy under misfortune: but a foolish over-estimate of their own power, a want of due precaution, and, above all, a constant tardiness of operation, render them unequal opponents to their Gallic enemies. Whatever be their fate as to a sovereign, it is not likely that much approximation between the two countries in respect to national character will take place;



place; since the reserved and serious habits of the Spaniards will ill accord with the restless gaiety and frivolity of their northern neighbours. It is true, indeed, that we should form a very mistaken notion of their manners, by judging of the present age from the stories of duennas and of conjugal jealousy which we see in romance; these have disappeared: but a radical incompatibility between French and Spanish manners still remains; and that attachment of the sexes, which in the one country is a light and variable feeling, is in the other a serious and lasting passion. Similar differences may be observed in the mode in which each nation pursues those amusements, such as music and dancing, which are favourites with both. Spanish music is grave and tender, being in some measure an imitation of the antient music of the Moors, improved by lessons from the Italian school. Their dances, the *fandango* and *bolero*, seem to call faculties of all kinds into action; they express sensation or rather passion by the eyes, and the other features of the face, as strongly, as by the movements of the body; and the indelicacies, of which they were productive, have led in recent times to their exclusion from genteel society.

The Spaniards are generally below the middle stature, and, without being weak, are thin when compared to the inhabitants of the north of Europe: their countenances possess considerable intelligence; and their female beauties generally belong to the class of brunettes. The traveller who purposes to visit Spain must be prepared for very indifferent accommodation: the communications are not sufficiently frequent to render inn-keeping a business of competition; and the inns are under very absurd as well as oppressive regulations. In villages, that a monopoly of provisions may be enforced, it is common to prevent the landlord of an inn from keeping any stock on hand; in towns, the inns, which are generally the property of corporations or great men, are often lett at an exorbitant rent; and in some places, so little of the profit goes to the master of the house, that the inn has no permanent occupant, and the inhabitants are compelled to keep it by turns. During summer, the old Spanish custom is to travel in the morning and the evening, in order to avoid the heat, which is great, notwithstanding the elevation of the ground in the interior. In this respect, the Castiles are to the rest of Spain what Bavaria is to the rest of Germany; — an extensive tract of table-land, lying higher than the surrounding provinces, and between fifteen and eighteen hundred feet above the level of the sea.

ART. VI. *Histoire du Feld Maréchal Souwarof, &c.; i. e. A History of the Life of Field Marshal Suwarof*, combined with the general History of the Age; and accompanied by Observations on the principal Events, political and military, in which Russia has borne a Part during the 18th Century. By L. M. P. DE LAVERNE, formerly an Officer of Dragoons. 8vo. pp. 490. Paris. 1809. Imported by Deconchy, London. Price 12s. sewed.

AFTER having experienced no small portion of disgust from the catch-penny productions with which the Parisian booksellers are in the habit of inundating the public, we sit down with particular relish to the perusal of a book of real value. This history of *Suwarof* is the composition of a man who is evidently qualified for the task; acquainted professionally with the art of war; and competent, by the extent of his general knowledge, to apprehend and describe, in its civil as well as military relations, the character of the extraordinary personage whose life he records. In addition also to his merits as an officer and a scholar, he possesses a claim to approbation from qualities which are still more rarely found in authors; viz. impartiality in regard to his own country, and exemption from that base spirit of adulation which has become almost universal in France. He relates the sanguinary triumphs of the Russian chief over the French, as freely and explicitly as those which were obtained over the Turks and the Poles; and he writes a military work without paying any compliments to *Bonaparte*, except towards the close: when, having introduced the names of other celebrated commanders, and expatiated on their merits, it might have seemed invidious to pass without notice the most successful General of the present age.

The character of *Suwarof* has been the subject of much difference of opinion. Some persons have gone so far as to deny him even the merit of military skill, and insist that he should be considered in no other light than as a headstrong champion, whose rule was to accomplish every thing by dint of force and by an indiscriminate profusion of human blood. Other persons, (and these form a very numerous class,) while they accede to the justice of his claims to military fame, are disposed to limit their estimate of his knowledge to mere tactics; and, judging too literally from appearances, imagine that, because he lived barbarously among barbarians, his mind was not less rude and uncultivated than his exterior manners. The question, how far these accusations are well founded, will be fully solved by an examination of the principal events in the life of this celebrated commander; whose character has long engaged our attention, and has appeared to us to lie much deeper

deeper than the world suspected. The review of these events will be best performed by making a condensed abstract of M. LAVERNE'S book : but we shall occasionally intersperse this abstract with observations of our own, particularly in regard to the memorable campaign of Italy ; reserving to the conclusion our notice of the few points in which we differ from the biographer.

*Alexander Suwarof* was born in Livonia in 1730, and was the only son of an antient and noble family. His father had been employed in diplomatic life, a career to which he destined and partly educated his son : but in the course of this education, the ardent temperament of young *Suwarof* had been inflamed by the exploits of celebrated warriors, and the campaigns of Hannibal and Cæsar had impressed an indelible stamp on his imagination. From that enthusiastic admiration of heroic feats which is natural to youth, he was led to the habit of studying war as a science ; a habit which remained with him through life, and ultimately led to a surprizing accumulation of intellectual stores. The original direction of his studies, however, to a different profession, and his father's dislike to the army, retarded in the first instance his military promotion : he found it necessary to go through, by actual service, the stations of private and corporal in the Guards, which, for youths whose names have been early registered, are in general only nominal duties ; and he was not made a subaltern officer till he reached the age of nineteen. Yet the nature of this intermediate service was highly useful, in giving him a practical and familiar acquaintance with the dispositions of the private soldiers. From the Guards he passed into a regiment of the line, and was made Lieutenant-Colonel at the age of twenty-seven. The war against Prussia, to which the Empress Elizabeth became a party, afforded *Suwarof* in 1759 the first exemplification of that art, the theory of which he had so ardently studied. It taught him the inestimable importance of celerity, by exhibiting a contrast between the enterprize and activity of Frederic and the slowness of the Russian commanders ; whose ignorance in the art of war, and particularly in the great point of provisioning their armies, rendered unavailing the superiority of their numbers in the field. Our countryman, General Lloyd, who has written an admirable history of the seven years' war, pronounces that the Russians never had a settled plan of operations ; that they knew only how to ravage and retreat ; and that, in his opinion, it was almost impossible to make them good soldiers. During this war, *Suwarof*'s station was generally with the vanguard ; and he already displayed that impetuous courage, that promptitude of discrimination, and that skill in leading the minds of men, for which he was after-

ward so eminent. He was present at the sanguinary battle of Cunersdorf in 1759, and at the capture and sack of Berlin in 1760. The war ended soon afterward; and, being made a Colonel in 1762, he was stationed with his regiment at Petersburg.

The resistance of the Polish Confederates, to the interference of the Empress Catherine in their national affairs, gradually burst into open hostility; and in 1769 *Suwarof* proceeded to Poland with the rank of Brigadier-General. He marched with his usual rapidity; having conducted two regiments over a distance of seven hundred miles in the space of a month, during the depth of winter. In Poland, military operations must be carried on in the midst of marshes, woods, and deserts; and the Russian troops were reduced by the breaking out of a war with Turkey, to a number that was sufficient to check but not to overthrow the Confederates. Under these circumstances, that celerity which has the effect of multiplying numbers, and which overtakes an enemy unawares in his inmost recesses, was of the last importance to the Russian cause; and such was the celerity of *Suwarof*. His chief opponents were *Dumouriez*, *Vismini*\*, and *Casimir Poulaski*, a young Polish nobleman of great resources and intrepidity. One of the principal actions was fought at Landskronn, a fortress in the Carpathian mountains, where *Dumouriez* had taken post, supporting his right by a wood and his left by the fort; a position in which he supposed himself to be invincible. *Suwarof*, however, attacked him without hesitation, broke his centre, and scattered his whole force. He next turned his arms against *Poulaski*, whom he followed so closely as to traverse three hundred miles in little more than a fortnight.—Equally skilful in pacifying and in fighting, *Suwarof* had subjected a great part of Poland, and had nearly dissolved the confederacy, when in 1772 the struggle was entirely terminated by the treaty between Austria, Russia, and Prussia; by which these powers agreed to unite against the unfortunate republicans, and to divide a third part of the Polish territory among themselves. *Suwarof* received from the Empress the military order of St. George, and proceeded in 1773 to serve under Marshal *Romanzoff* against the Turks.

Though the Russians had often defeated the Turks in pitched battles, they had made little progress in extending or retaining their conquests. The martial character of the Crimean Tartars had formed a great obstacle to their success. These barbarians were Mohammedans, and were attached to the Turkish Sultan as the head of their religion. It had long been the aim of the Russians to detach them from their connection with the

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\* See the *Appendix* to M. R. Vol. lix, N. S. p. 533.

Porte, but in vain ; and neither the policy of Peter the Great nor the military talents of the celebrated *Munick*, in a subsequent reign, had been able to win or to subjugate them : but they retained the power of sallying from their own territory, and of laying waste the fairest provinces of Russia. Although the conquests of the Empress extended sufficiently into Turkey to separate the Tartars from that empire, she well knew the impolicy of any sudden attempt to incorporate them among her subjects ; and she confined her first endeavours to the object of gaining their good will by acts of generosity.—The peculiar mode of Turkish warfare is another reason for the conquests of the Russians not having been in proportion to the number of their victories. The Turks, when their ranks are broken, disperse and fly with great expedition, laying waste the country around, and depriving their pursuers of the means of subsistence. The wild state of the provinces which had been the scene of war, and the unskilfulness of the Russians in provisioning their armies, had prevented them from those rapid and continued pursuits which alone could render effectual their superiority in the field ; while the Turks rallied and returned in a few days to a fresh attack. The Empress, wearied with this tedious warfare, and alarmed by a revolt which was excited by the Russian clergy, whose influence she had endeavoured to lessen, concluded a peace with the Turks in 1774. By this treaty she obtained for herself the territory of Azoph, with the free navigation of the Euxine, and for the Crimean Tartars an acknowledgement of their independence of the Porte ;—an act by which she hoped to procure to herself the attachment of those restless neighbours.

*Suwarof* had been made a Major-General in Poland, and, before the conclusion of the Turkish war, he had been created a Lieutenant-General, and had commanded a division of twelve thousand men. In 1775 he married the daughter of Prince *Prozorowski*, an alliance which was deliberately formed, and was suitable in rank to both parties : but *Suwarof* had lived too long in camps to be fitted for domestic life ; and after an union of sufficient length to make him the father of a son and a daughter, an end was put to the discordant connection by a formal separation.

The ambitious Catherine pursued her aggrandizement in peace with the same steadiness as in war. Having formed a powerful party among the Tartars of the Crimea and Cuban, and having thrown a very large body of troops into the most commanding positions, she boldly assumed the sovereignty of the country, and prevailed on its haughty chiefs to swear allegiance to her government. A dangerous revolt of the Cuban

Cuban Tartars was repressed by the vigour of *Suwarof*; and in 1787, when tranquillity was completely re-established, the Empress and her court made a journey in state through her recently acquired provinces, and dispensed favours among her new subjects with the magnificence and liberality of a mighty sovereign. It was in this journey that the Emperor Joseph joined her, and concerted a new war against Turkey, which threatened the partition of that Empire.—*Suwarof* had devoted the interval of peace to professional studies, and received in his fifty-sixth year the rank of General-in-chief. The Turks, desirous of striking the first blow, declared war in 1787, and *Suwarof* bore a distinguished share in the earliest encounters. Success, as usual, attended him: but he exposed himself in such perilous situations, that the wounds which he received had nearly terminated his life, and obliged him to withdraw, for a season, from the field.—In 1789, the Turks, encouraged by the success of their desultory efforts against the tardy routine of the Austrians, determined to assume the offensive, and to direct their principal exertions against that part of the hostile force. Having been apprized that Prince *Cobourg* was encamped near Forhani with only 18,000 men, they assembled to attack him with a force of three times the number. *Cobourg* called on *Suwarof* to come speedily to his aid; and the Russian, taking with him 7000 veterans, and a few pieces of field-artillery, but no baggage, marched straight forwards across woods and hills, and, without stopping to rest by night, traversed a distance of seventy-miles in thirty-six hours. He arrived at the Austrian camp in the afternoon; and after having resisted the repeated solicitations of their General to see him, he employed himself in collecting such information as enabled him to fix decisively the method of attacking the Turks. At the late hour of eleven at night, he transmitted to Prince *Cobourg* the following plan of operation; which, while it bears marks of the singularity of its author, discovers his sagacity in adopting a style that was calculated to put an end to the wavering of the Austrian General:

“The army to be in motion at two in the morning; to march in three columns; the Austrians on the right and left, the Russians in the centre. Let us attack the enemy's posts with our collected force, and not lose time in driving their detached parties from the brush-wood on our right, as our object should be to reach the river Putra by day-break, and pass it to continue the attack. I am told that only 50,000 Turks are now here, but that 50,000 more are a few marches behind. It had been better if they had been all here together; since they would then have been beaten on the same day, and an end be put to the business at once: but, as it is otherwise,

we will begin with those who are on the spot ; and with the bravery of our troops and the blessing of God, we will be victorious."

The method which he had taken to avoid communicating with Prince *Cobourg* was characteristic, and deserves to be mentioned. He received three urgent invitations in the course of the evening, and contrived to evade them all. To the first message he directed his servants to answer that he was at prayers, and could not be disturbed ; to the second, that he was taking refreshment ; and to the third, that he was taking rest. To an ordinary observer, such conduct bore no other appearance than that of contradiction and obstinacy, but it was in reality the result of profound reflection. Prince *Cobourg* was his senior, and, like other Austrian Generals, full of plan and system ; *Suwarof* was aware that they should not agree in their manner of fighting the Turks ; and he was unwilling to waste a precious interval in fruitless altercation. He judged it less disrespectful to evade than to refuse, and he delayed the communication of his plan of attack, till it was too late to make alterations, or to suffer any hazard of its becoming known to the enemy. His wishes were fulfilled ; *Cobourg* acquiesced in his scheme of operation ; the army passed the *Putra* ; repulsed, by their close order, the impetuous attacks of the Turkish cavalry ; marched up to the enemy's cannon ; and carried the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet, with a prodigious slaughter of the Turks. Such was the battle of *Forhani*, which took place on the 21st July 1789. *Suwarof* soon afterward withdrew from *Cobourg*, and resumed his separate station : but the Grand Vizir, having taken the field in person, and having assembled, by his popularity, an immense army, *Suwarof* received on the 16th September a pressing letter from *Cobourg*, requesting him to join the Austrians. His answer was given in two words, "*I come* ;" an hour afterward, his army was on the march ; and in the course of two days, it was in the Austrian camp. The Turks soon came within a few leagues of the Austrians, and occupied themselves in forming an encampment on the banks of the *Rymnik*, as a *dépot* for their heavy artillery and stores previously to their intended attack on Prince *Cobourg*. They had in front a fortified village, and on their right an open wood. *Suwarof* having urged that they should be attacked without delay, the allied army set out on their march at dusk, the Russians occupying the left, and the Austrians the centre and right. They advanced in silence, and formed in square battalions, with open intervals, to allow the enemy's cavalry to pass. The Turks were ignorant of their approach till the outposts were driven in : but, perceiving by day-break the inferior

terior number of their adversaries, the Vizir bore down with the mass of his army on the Austrians. An obstinate conflict ensued, during which *Suwarof* turned the fortified village, cut off the enemy from their artillery, and excited a panic which drove into the wood a great part of the Turkish main body, who were already yielding to the firmness of the Austrians. Here, however, the Turks resumed courage; the position was favourable; and they were still greatly superior in numbers to the whole allied army. *Suwarof* urged *Cobourg* to wheel round to his support, formed the Russian infantry into columns, attacked the wood, and, with the aid of the Austrians, carried it in the space of an hour. The pursuit was sanguinary. The loss of the Turks in killed, wounded, and drowned, was immense; and an army of 110,000 men was extinguished, or dispersed, by a force which was not more than one third of their number. Honours were now heaped on *Suwarof*; the Emperor Joseph created him a Count of the German Empire; and Catherine made him a Russian Count, and conferred on him, in imitation of the Roman policy, the surname of *Rymnikski*.

In the next year, the death of Joseph took place, and the alarming insurrections in the Low Countries induced his successor Leopold to make peace with Turkey. *Suwarof* kept the field: but the operations lingered, the chief part of the Russian army being occupied in besieging *Ismail*, a name which will recall to our readers the most sanguinary of all *Suwarof's* conflicts. This city stands near one of the mouths of the Danube, and was defended by a garrison whose numbers were such as to render it an army. The besiegers had made little progress during the whole summer, and winter was advancing; when *Potemkin*, wearied with delay, sent orders to *Suwarof* to repair to *Ismail*, and, collecting under its walls the scattered forces of the Russians, to effect its reduction at any price. The manner of accomplishing it was left to *Suwarof*; who, having assembled a force of forty-thousand men, determined to resort to the dreadful expedient of assault: but, while he was secretly preparing his fascines and scaling ladders, he assumed to the enemy the appearance of a regular siege. In an enterprize in which so much depended on the firmness of the common-soldiers, he laboured to prepare them to undertake it with cheerfulness and confidence, by mixing familiarly with them, and affecting to make light of the danger. On summoning the Pacha to surrender, he received for answer, that "the Danube should stop short in its course, and the heavens sink down to the earth, before *Ismail* should be surrendered to the Russians." On the 10th December,

*Suwarof*



*Suwarof*, having called together his Generals and a number of officers, declared his determination to make the assault forthwith, reminded them of the glory of their late exploits, and desired them to repeat his words to the soldiers. At three o'clock in the morning, a rocket from his tent was the signal to the army to prepare; a second rocket at four o'clock was the signal to form into columns; and a third, at five, was the order to advance.

The attack was made in nine columns; six on the land-side, and three from the shipping in the river. The Turks allowed them to advance within a hundred yards, and then opened a tremendous fire of grape-shot: but the Russians pushed on, filled the ditch with their fascines, and, applying their scaling ladders, boldly attempted to climb the walls. The regular troops succeeded; the Cossacks, unable to resist the Turkish sabre, were driven from the walls and the ladders into the ditch: but, being afterward supported by the regulars, the whole Russian army was formed on the ramparts by eight o'clock. It was then that the conflict began in the town; the Turks were equal in numbers, and disputed every inch of ground. Six hours were passed in battle and carnage, before the town was completely in possession of the Russians; their cavalry then scoured the streets; and the pillage of the city having been promised to these barbarians, the unhappy inhabitants were exposed to death and outrage during three days. The mind shudders at the waste of blood in these inhuman conflicts, to which the guilty ambition of sovereigns impels their deluded subjects! The Russians lost between 4 and 5,000 men, and the Turks 33,000 killed, and 10,000 prisoners.

This capture of Ismail was the last exploit of *Suwarof* against the Turks; he was invited to Petersburg, and loaded with honours; and in the next year peace was concluded, the death of *Potemkin* having removed the principal obstacle to that event in the Russian court. The conditions were favourable to the Turks, who made no other sacrifice than the cession of Oczakow and its territory, and the acknowledgement of the sovereignty of the Empress over little Tartary. The Dniester was declared the Russian boundary; and all beyond it, including even the fatal Ismail, was restored to the Turks.

An interval of peace now ensued, but it brought to *Suwarof* only a change in the manner of his active labours. He passed three years in new-modelling, against a future struggle, the military resources of Russia on the side of Finland against Sweden, as well as on the side of Little Tartary against Turkey. However, the state of Poland soon summoned him to exertions of a different kind. Animated by the example of the

the French revolution, the Poles had risen on the Russian troops, and, under the direction of *Kosciusko*, obtained several advantages over them. The Polish regiments in the Russian service, kindled with the spirit of their countrymen, were on the point of turning their arms against the Prussians, when *Suwarof*, by a sudden march and a happy mixture of temperance and energy succeeded in disarming them, to the number of eight thousand, without shedding a drop of blood. Advancing afterward into Poland to co-operate with the Prussians, he had the mortification to learn that they had retreated from Warsaw : but, though deprived of the aid of his allies, he determined to proceed, and marched at the head of 12,000 men in quest of the Polish army under *Sirakouski*, which he found entrenched behind a bog, and covered on their flanks with hills and woods. Having ascertained that the bog was passable, he attacked the Poles in front with the bayonet, and obtained a victory. The enemy, however, making good their retreat, *Suwarof* saw that they would be speedily reinforced, and pursued them by night-marches : by means of which, after having traversed nearly fifty miles, he overtook them unawares near the Bug, where an obstinate action ensued, and the Polish army was nearly annihilated. He then advanced to the Vistula, and collected the Russian forces, to the number of 22,000 men, under the walls of Praga, the fortified suburb of Warsaw, situated on the right bank of the Vistula. The Polish troops amounted to 30,000, and were intrenched in a strong camp outside of the walls. To the success of an assault on Praga, the capture of a double barrier was thus necessary : but *Suwarof* could depend on the firmness of his men, and determined to act here as he had done at Ismail. Having made every preparation, the assault took place at day-break, the 24th October 1793, and in four hours the intrenched camp, the town of Praga, and the remnant of the Polish troops, were in his possession. Half of the Polish army was killed, and the other half made prisoners, with a loss of only 1500 men on the part of the Russians. The inhabitants of Warsaw, astonished, opened their gates to the conqueror ; and, in the course of a few weeks, the resistance of the Poles was at an end. Signal marks of honour were bestowed on *Suwarof* by the Emperor of Germany and the King of Prussia, and Catherine created him a Field-Marshal, adding to this fresh title the gift of a domain of 7000 peasants. He remained a year in Poland, and passed it in assiduous endeavours to reconcile its inhabitants to the Russian government. Returning to Petersburg, he was treated with the greatest distinction, and was on the point of obtaining the fulfilment of the wish which he

he had long cherished, to take the field against the French, when the sudden death of the Empress suspended the declaration of hostilities.

Under such a master as Paul, it was not probable that a frank and independent character like *Suwarof* could remain long in favour. He made no scruple of ridiculing the fantastic innovations in the army, and his removal from command was the consequence. He retired first to Moscow and afterward to the country, where he remained in obscurity till he was summoned again to arms by the second coalition against France. England, having engaged to subsidize 100,000 Russians, was intitled to name their General, and fixed on *Suwarof*. The Emperor of Germany was persuaded to apply to Paul for the services of the aged warrior, who unexpectedly received in his retirement the following letter from his master :

" I have taken the resolution of sending you to Italy, to the aid of the Emperor and King, my ally and brother. *Suwarof* has no need of triumphs and laurels, but his country has need of *Suwarof*. My wishes are conformable to those of Francis II., who has conferred on you the command in chief of his army, and requests that you will accept it. It remains, therefore, only with *Suwarof* to yield to the prayers of his country, and the desire of Francis II.

(Signed) " PAUL."

*Suwarof* was transported at the receipt of this letter. He had always a lively sensibility to the attention of princes, and he was impressed with a vehement antipathy to the principles of the French revolution. Since the French had become so terrible to their neighbours, he had been accustomed to write to the Empress Catherine, in the Russian style,— " Mother and lady, order me, I intreat you, to march against the French." He applied Paul's welcome letter to his numerous scars, one after the other, and exclaimed that it had restored him to a new life. He hastened to yield compliance to the mandate, and proceeding to Vienna was received with great distinction by the Emperor Francis. Arrangements had been made to render Italy the principal theatre of war, of which *Suwarof* approved : but no solicitation on the part of the Austrian government could prevail on him either to offer them his outline of the campaign, or to take into consideration the plans which they had already formed. He knew that Austria had paid dear for her predilection for these premature combinations, which never can be so framed as to provide for the contingencies resulting from the counter projects of the enemy. Invoking the divine aid, before an immense concourse of people in the cathedral of Vienna, and promising the Emperor speedy news of victory, he set out for Italy, and joined the Austrian army, which had already

commenced a succesful career under General *Kray*. *Suwarof* now found himself in the delicate situation of commanding officers of another nation; a situation in which he, whom superficial observers have accounted a madman or a buffoon, acquitted himself with great dexterity. He paid a tribute of praise to each General, but particularly to *Kray*, to whom he said, "It is to you, Sir, that I shall be indebted for the advantages which I hope to obtain over the enemy; it is you who have opened to me the road to victory."

The French, commanded by *Moreau*, were encamped beyond the *Adda*. *Suwarof* advanced with a superior force, and, passing the river with great celerity and secrecy, defeated them in the first battle in which they and the Russians had ever met. *Moreau* retreated before the conqueror, who pushed on to *Milan*. The situation of the various corps of adverse troops was at that time considerably complicated. The French were distributed three different ways. A distinct body of 40,000 men under *Macdonald* was marching from the south of Italy, another of 30,000 under *Moreau* was retreating before *Suwarof*, but still maintaining its communication with *Macdonald* through the medium of the Genoese territory; while the remainder of the French were distributed in the garrisons of *Mantua*, *Peschiera*, *Tortona*, *Alessandria*, and *Turin*, all places situated in the country which was over-run by *Suwarof*. The total of the allies amounted to 80,000 men, a force inferior to the aggregate of the French, but greater than any number which could be speedily united against them. In what manner was *Suwarof* to turn to account his present superiority? Was he to avoid beginning any sieges, and to march with a powerful army to meet *Macdonald*? or was he to push the sieges in the interval with all possible rapidity, and trust to his own activity in combining an adequate force at the moment of *Macdonald's* arrival? Of these alternatives he chose the latter, and, contrary to his usual practice, divided his army to push the respective sieges. Each corps had orders to retard by every means the advance of *Macdonald*, but to fall back, and to fight no general action. *Macdonald*, on arriving from the south, had the option of either a bold or a cautious course. The cautious system would have consisted in marching silently along the whole extent of the Genoese coast, till he had effected a junction with *Moreau*; the other course was to cross the *Appennines* at once, and assail the allies from the east, while *Moreau* should collect his scattered troops, and advance against them from the west. *Macdonald* had been accustomed to success; he was confident in the vigour of his troops; and the dispersed situation of the allied forces offered a tempting prospect of successive advantages

tages to such rapid assailants as the French. He remembered his triumphs over the Austrians in the former war, and he had yet to learn that any change of commander could make them different from what he had known them. *Moreau*, taught by recent experience, leaned to the cautious side: but *Macdonald* determined to judge for himself, and descended from the Appennines into the plain, trusting to his celerity for beating the allied troops in detail.

No sooner had *Suwarof* learned this design, than he proceeded by forced marches to meet the French commander before he could advance sufficiently to co-operate with *Moreau*. *Macdonald* had passed Modena, Reggio, Parma, and Placenza, driving before him the light troops of the allies, and was on the point of forcing General *Ott* to relinquish his position near Placenza; when *Suwarof* arrived in the afternoon of the 17th June, and, joining his forces to the Austrians, obliged the French to retreat, after an obstinate and bloody struggle. *Macdonald*, however, although repulsed, was not overcome; and he drew up his army the next morning in a compact position near the Trebia, the scene of the famous battle between Hannibal and Sempronius. Protected by a numerous artillery, and strengthened by woods and ditches, he calmly awaited the onset of his adversary. The French were in number 30,000, the allies 36,000. *Suwarof* saw the strength of the enemy's position and felt that it could not be turned. Little room was left for generalship; and the conflict was to be decided by obstinate perseverance and force. His plan of attack was simple: his troops marched in three columns, and assailed the enemy with the bayonet. Success was long doubtful; the Russians were repulsed at an important point, and were retreating when *Suwarof* laid himself down on the road, and declared that "he would die on the spot if his troops gave way." They returned to the charge, and, after the most extraordinary efforts, drove the French from the field of battle: but they were too much fatigued to pursue the latter beyond the Trebia; and *Macdonald*, taking courage from their inaction, ventured on the third day to become the assailant. He attacked in front the right wing and centre of the allies, and had the hardihood to push forwards a column to turn their left. This column the allies charged with cavalry; and though such attacks are rarely successful against good troops, the fatigued state of the French obliged them to yield, and *Macdonald*, defeated at all points, fled to the Appennines with a loss of 20,000 men. *Suwarof* now came back on *Moreau*, who had advanced against his rear, but did not dare to await his return. The siege of

Mantua next engaged his attention; and having supported it with 600-pieces of cannon, he soon forced it to surrender.

Meanwhile, the French had collected a fresh army for the re-conquest of Italy, and placed at its head General *Joubert*, a young man of great energy, in whom they believed that they saw a second *Bonaparte*. The hostile armies came in sight of each other at Novi, the French occupying a position on the heights, from which they proposed to descend on the next day to fight in the plain. *Suwarof* determined to anticipate their attack, and, detaching General *Melas* to turn them on the right, directed in person the assault on their centre. This battle, the last general action which he fought, was the most obstinate that he had ever witnessed. The French repulsed the allies on the left, and in the centre the Russian columns were three times driven back. *Suwarof* exclaimed, "shall I then be beaten at the end of my career?" and was on the point of rushing to put himself at the head of his grenadiers. At last, *Melas* having accomplished *Suwarof's* plan of turning the enemy's right, a fourth attack of the Russians proved successful in the centre; and *Joubert* having been killed, the French were completely defeated, with the loss of all their artillery, and 8000 men killed in the field. The loss of the allies was also considerable.

*Suwarof* was now at the height of his fame. Honour flowed on him from all quarters, but particularly from Russia; Paul, having created him a Prince of the Empire, conferred on him the surname of *Italiski*, and directed that his name should be joined with the imperial family in the public prayers. The court of Vienna concurred ostensibly in the general congratulations: but its illiberal and selfish policy had already laid the seeds of disunion with Russia. Piedmont having been re-conquered by their combined arms, Russia wished to restore that country to its former sovereign, but Austria coveted its retention for herself. *Suwarof* was of a character too inflexible and independent for a cabinet that was accustomed, like that of Austria, to implicit acquiescence from its agents. It was determined, therefore, that he should withdraw with the Russians from Italy; and that, joining them to the reinforcements recently arrived in Switzerland, he should command an army exclusively Russian. He accordingly set out on his march through the frightful defiles of Switzerland; after having warned the Austrians of the misfortunes which their tardy and indecisive tactics would bring on them, and adding that, notwithstanding their jealousy, he would return and cover their retreat in the hour of disaster. He entered Switzerland with a force of only 12,000 effective Russians, the remnant of 40,000; so  
wasteful

wasteful to an army are even victories! In this laborious and dangerous march, he displayed the same intelligence and activity in surmounting the obstacles of nature, which he had already shewn in vanquishing his enemies! but while he was occupied in penetrating through these terrific defiles, he received the alarming news that *Massena* had overthrown the Russian army at Zurich, that the Austrians who were destined to support his march had fled, and that the French had cut off his retreat in all directions. Never was a Commander in a more perilous situation. With only a few days' provisions, he was in the midst of rocks and mountains, from which the only egress was by three paths; one towards Glarus on the east, occupied by the French under General *Molitor*; another at Attorf on the south, where General *Lecourbe* had taken post with a strong corps; and a third at Schwitz on the north, whither *Massena* was advancing by forced marches, flushed with success and confident of his prey. The eyes of all Europe were fixed on Switzerland, and the aged warrior was given up for lost. He felt the danger of his situation, but he assumed a cheerful countenance to his troops. To retreat had never been his lot in war, and it cost him dear to resort to it at the close of his career. The necessity, however, was indispensable; and he yielded to that necessity, yet in a manner which bespoke the unsubdued vigour of his mind. He marched suddenly against *Massena's* vanguard, overthrew it, and destroyed its artillery; then turning rapidly to the east, he directed his course towards the path which led to Glarus. This path was so narrow as to admit only two men abreast; on the left was a perpendicular rock; and on the right a lake. Confined as it was by nature, it was still farther obstructed by stones and logs of wood: the French troops were in front; and their artillery, on the opposite side of the lake, commanded it in flank. Here was no common danger, and a General who had not complete possession of the hearts of his soldiers would have been irretrievably lost. *Suwarof* first shewed the Russians the path, and next pointed to himself and the Emperor's son, Constantine, both about to fall into the hands of the enemy, unless rescued by the valour of their own troops. The soldiers, affected with the scene, demanded with loud cries to be led on, and their intrepidity and impetuosity overcame every obstacle. The French were made to vanish from the path, as if swept off by a superior power; and they were pursued with such celerity that they overthrew their own posts successively in their flight. *Suwarof* arrived at Glarus victorious, but determined to withdraw from all co-operation with the Austrians, whom he accused of having abandoned his army.

He persisted in this determination: his court concurred with him; and the cabinet of Vienna being so infatuated as to refuse the cessions required by Russia as an evidence of her sincerity, *Suwarof* led back his army to their own frontiers. On the Marshal's arrival at Petersburg, Paul wreaked his own disappointment on that officer, accused him of not timely apprizing him of the perfidious intentions of Austria, and pretended to make light of his military exploits. *Suwarof*, afflicted at the manner in which the coalition had been dissolved, and too keenly alive to censure proceeding from the throne, became dangerously ill. On hearing this, Paul relented, and sent to him his two sons, Alexander and Constantine: the veteran recovered sufficiently to deliver to them instructions for their guidance in public life, and to lament the degradations of his country since the death of Catherine: but the disease was too far gone to be removed by any consolation, and he soon afterward expired in his seventieth year. Paul, irritated perhaps by the warrior's dying declaration, refused him any higher funeral than that of a Major-General: the courtiers took warning, and did not attend,—an example which was imitated by the whole diplomatic body, with the honourable exception of the English ambassador. Some time afterward, however, Paul ordered a statue of *Suwarof* to be erected in a public square at Petersburg; which was completed during the present reign, with a solemn ceremony, in which *Suwarof's* son appeared, accompanied by the Emperor and his whole court. In the church of Alexander Neuski, is to be seen a plain bronze table inscribed with the name of *Suwarof*, and lighted by a lamp which is kept burning at all hours:—this is his tomb.

M. LAVERNE concludes his work with a delineation of *Suwarof's* character, which, like some other parts of the volume, is considerably too diffuse. It conveys, however, when taken all together, a very clear representation of the warrior's disposition and habits. Passing over the remarks which appear to us superfluous, we have put together and translated the most interesting passages:

'*Suwarof* had been above fifty years in military service; he had been present in more than a hundred actions, and had commanded in sixty four, without ever being defeated. His predominant passion was the love of glory; indifferent to wealth, he gave up to others the spoils of the vanquished; and he shared with the private soldiers even those pecuniary rewards which were bestowed exclusively on himself. In person, he was small and thin; his body seemed to consist of sinews; his features were mean, his nose flat, his mouth wide, and his eyes were small, but discovered by their animation the fire of his temperament. His health was sound and vigorous. He rose regularly at day-break, drenched himself with cold water, and took



took a repast between eight and nine o'clock. When in the field, he used the diet of a common soldier, which was generally broth and sour bread; in quarters, the only addition which he made to this plain food consisted in the use of cheese, butter, or salt meat. His drink was beer, with a little brandy after each meal; of which he ate two in the course of the day, with a keen appetite. His general custom was to sleep only three or four hours at night, and as many, when opportunity permitted, in the middle of the day. He was regular in his devotional exercises, and performed them before an image of St. Nicholas, the tutelary saint of Russia. When in quarters, he slept wrapt up in his cloak on a thin mattress or blanket, stretched on the floor; in the field, he slept on a board or on the bare ground. He never had guards, and his soldiers, as well as officers, had access to him at all hours; he was accustomed to traverse the camp on foot or on horseback alone; he descended to jocular familiarity and even to buffoonery with his soldiers — a conduct which would have been absurd among troops of a more civilized stamp: but which to the semi-barbarian Russians presented an image of the only manners that they could comprehend. The result of all these habits was an unparalleled devotion on the part of his soldiers, which accounts for the singular circumstance of his never being defeated during so long a career. They thought that their commander was an inspired being, and they would march to inevitable fate under his orders. He never carried money in his pocket, and would not even touch any. His fortune was enjoyed by his son, by his relations, and by the officers of his suite. A declared enemy to luxury, he caused every article of superfluous furniture to be removed from any apartment which was appropriated to him; and if a mirror had been left, he broke it in pieces forthwith; as an appendage unworthy of a man. The only things of which he was proud were the diamonds and stars of orders that were conferred on him for his military exploits. They were very numerous, and had been chiefly the gift of the Empress Catherine. They were carried near his person in a casket, and worn by him with great pomp on public occasions. His ordinary dress was very plain, and consisted in summer of a cotton jacket with scarlet lace, linen drawers, small old-fashioned boots, and a light casque on his head.

The court of Vienna, in appointing him to the chief command, wished it to be understood that the troops of the two nations, though both under his direction, should act separately. *Suwarof* would not admit any general stipulation to this effect, but shewed by his arrangements a discriminating sense of their respective merits; employing the Austrians, on account of their tactical knowledge, in vanguards and detached corps, and relying on the Russians for desperate attacks. His staff was composed in great measure of Austrian officers; and on the chief of the staff reading over to him the plan of an attack or of a march, he discovered exquisite discernment in retrenching what was superfluous or supplying what was deficient. He was never the advocate of defensive operations. His leading characteristics were celerity in march, and boldness in attack: minor

considerations, such as a change of position during action, or taking advantage of a particular locality, do not seem to have been familiar to him. Having once formed his plan, he pushed straight forwards to its execution. Posts and batteries indiscriminately were attacked at the point of the bayonet; and in front, without hesitation, if a ready access was not offered at the flank. He was accustomed to say to his officers, "If I sustain a loss of lives to day, it will cause a saving hereafter;" and to the soldiers, "balls are blind, but bayonets can discern." He accustomed his troops to the performance of duty in spite of all obstacles, in the shape of weather, of privations, of fatigue, or of dangers. His officers, having once received an order, were not allowed to weigh the difficulties attending its execution, but were required to fulfill it promptly and completely. His custom was to take no notice of the attendant obstacles, but to prescribe distinctly the day, the hour, and the place. He could not bear to hear an officer say, "I do not know this," or "I cannot do that." He expected every one under his command to acquire a ready application of his powers, and had no patience with those who hesitated. To ascribe ferocity to him as an inherent quality is a vulgar error; yet mildness certainly did not enter into his composition. His retorts, even to his superiors, were bitter and poignant; he was often blunt and rude to the officers attached to his person, and not sufficiently attentive in aiding their promotion. It might be said that he treated the soldiers better than the officers, and the officers at large better than those who were under his immediate eye. He had an antipathy to the Prussians, on account of their boasting and military parade. The public in general are strangely misinformed in respect to the extent of his knowledge. He has been pictured as an unlettered barbarian, but he possessed a stock of varied and profound erudition. He spoke the Russian, Turkish, Polish, Italian, German, and French languages. He was capable of writing German and French, and he read Greek, Latin, and Arabic. He could quote antient and modern history with surprising accuracy; and he was qualified to carry on a conversation on subjects the most foreign to his profession. With a priest he would discourse on divinity, with a lawyer on jurisprudence, and with a surgeon on anatomy. He declined to accept any presents in property from the Empress till after he had children, but eventually his fortune was augmented by these donations to a large amount. His family consisted of a son and a daughter. His son, Count *Italsky*, is favourably known in the diplomatic world; and his daughter, the wife of General *Zoubof*, is a woman of great merit, and was the idol of her father, who would kiss her hand for hours together, and run about her room, thanking heaven for having given him such a daughter.

Our objections to M. LAVERNE's book are of two kinds:—he trespasses sometimes in the way of declamation, and, like many other biographers, he is apt to be transported into too vehement an admiration of the subject of his labours. Not that we would be understood to mean that he over-rates *Suwarof's* military talents,

talents, but that he attributes to him, in other respects, feelings too refined for his situation. Knowledge, and even learning, to a great extent, were possessed by this extraordinary man; and a generous passion for the glory of his country was predominant in him, to the exclusion of all selfish views of private ambition: but to dwell on his sentiments of delicacy and humanity, as M. LAVERNE sometimes permits himself to do, is to ascribe to him qualities which are incompatible with his habits of life, and with the character of that society from which he took his impressions. Objectionable, however, as the book is in these respects, it is still such a production as we should rejoice to see proceed from the pen of an English officer.

We shall now offer a few remarks on a subject which M. LAVERNE could not venture to touch with an impartial hand, a comparison between *Suwarof* and *Bonaparte*. Each had from nature a most ardent mind, and each pursued his profession with intense assiduity. A remarkable resemblance prevails also in the character of their warfare. Both have owed their fame to battles, and not to manœuvring; both have been distinguished for rapid movements; and both have been accused of want of variety in their tactics. *Bonaparte's* education in an enlightened country had led to the attainment of a wider compass of scientific knowledge; *Suwarof's* length of practical experience had procured him a more complete mastery over the machine which he directed. If we would imagine a situation in which these, the greatest Generals of the present age, were opposed to each other on equal terms, we must not assign to the one the power of France, and to the other that of Russia: that would indeed be an unequal opposition of means, which would place the resources of a vast and disjointed region against those of so populous and compact a country as France. To obtain a fair ground of parallel, we must suppose a case in which *Bonaparte* and *Suwarof* took the field with equal numbers and equal resources; the only distinction being that the one commanded Frenchmen, and the other Russians. In officers, *Bonaparte* would have had the benefit of science; *Suwarof* that of devoted attachment. In soldiers, *Bonaparte* would have possessed intelligence and activity; *Suwarof*, fearless intrepidity. Under such circumstances, the chances in a pitched battle would have been in favour of *Suwarof*; but, in a protracted warfare, in favour of *Bonaparte*. Had *Bonaparte* ventured to pursue towards his Russian antagonist the daring system by which he assailed the Austrians, he would soon have paid the forfeit of rashness; for had *Suwarof* commanded at Asperne, *Bonaparte's* army would never have recrossed the

the Danube : but we estimate his talents too highly, to believe that he would have hazarded bold measures against such an enemy. He appears to possess the tact of Hannibal in adapting his mode of operation to the character of his opponent ; and we are no converts to the notion that his success in war has been owing either to the power of numbers or to fortune. He would have been wise enough to know that *Suwarof* was too vigilant to be surprised, and too strong to be overthrown ; and he would have concluded that his only chance of success consisted in drawing the eager veteran into a snare. To yield partial successes to an enemy, and draw them into a general engagement under circumstances of disadvantage ; was early the plan of *Bonaparte* ; and the impetuosity of *Suwarof's* temper, and the uniformity of his past successes, might have laid him open to such a system. He had fought with Turks and Poles, and was so much accustomed to chase his enemies before him, that it is doubtful whether he was prepared to make due allowance for the different character of the French ; for the resources of their officers in the hour of pressure ; and for the dexterity of their soldiers in recovering their order and repeating their attacks. On the one hand, we cannot doubt that the inventive mind of *Bonaparte* might have devised a combination of circumstances, which were calculated to draw his antagonist into imminent danger : on the other hand, it would evidently have been very hazardous to concert the measures necessary to a complicated plan, within reach of an adversary who was accustomed to deal speedy destruction to all who were exposed to him. In short, *Suwarof* and his Russians formed an engine of such a nature as to bid defiance to calculation ; for if we go so far as to suppose that *Bonaparte* had succeeded in bringing them to action under circumstances so unfavourable as to leave no chance to ordinary troops, still the energy of *Suwarof* and the desperate fury of his soldiers might have overturned the most skilful combinations, and have poured on the heads of the enemy the destruction which the latter had prepared for them.

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ART. VII. *Mélanges de Littérature, &c.* ; i. e. Literary and Philosophical Miscellanies. By F. ANCILLON, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences of Prussia. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 2l.

THE difference of national character, which subsists between the French and the Germans, is strikingly exemplified in their different mode of treating subjects of philosophy,

sophy, particularly those of an abstract nature. The former seem to rejoice in the possession of a system of *empiricism*, highly refined by some of the most ingenious writers in the Augustan age of their literature, and calculated to promote the enjoyment of life; while the latter have constantly been losing themselves in the depths of abstraction, and have felt a pride in the transcendent elevation and useless extent of their metaphysical speculations. Though immediate neighbours, the two nations have, at least in this branch of science, borrowed little from each other; and the *Gallimania*, which has been so often and so justly ascribed to the Germans, has never induced them to abandon their pursuit after the first elements of knowledge and the establishment of new systems. Of late, several French scholars have caught the infection during their stay in Germany, and have attempted to raise their own countrymen to the exalted views of the philosophy of their neighbours: but with how little success is proved by the regret which they expressed in every new exertion for the same object.

M. ANCILLON,—belonging as he expresses himself to both countries, to France through his ancestors and in the language which he writes, and to Germany by birth, studies, affections, and the colouring of his ideas,—feels a desire of becoming the mediator or philosophical interpreter between the two nations; and the essays which he has collected in the volumes before us, though they pretend not to the merit of accomplishing that design, are intended to promote among French readers a love for deeper inquiries into the principles of human knowledge, taste, and morals; while through them the author, as a citizen of the republic of letters, tenders his vote on some questions which have considerably agitated the minds of men on the continent. If it be an essential qualification in a mediator, that he should not entertain the sentiments of either of the parties whom he wishes to reconcile, M. ANCILLON may hope for success: but we much fear that his *rationalism* will be too metaphysical for the friends of empiric philosophy, while it will incur the reproach of being too much like *common sense* from the advocates of *transcendent idealism*, or M. Schelling's philosophy of nature. As to ourselves, we have been gratified by the perusal of his essays; and we think that few impartial readers will lay them out of their hands without having derived pleasure and instruction from them. An elevation of sentiment prevails in them, which compensates for that want of simplicity in the train of ideas with which some of them may be taxed; and their whole tendency is equally

equally favourable to the interests of religion and morals, and calculated to improve the taste.

The essay, which stands first in the series, *On the idea and the feeling of Infinity*, develops the author's principles respecting the constitution of the human mind ; to which he reverts in most of the succeeding essays, and which form the principal support of his reasoning and sentiments on matters of knowledge and of taste. He endeavours to shew that an idea, or a feeling and a desire, of the Infinite, is not only an essential ingredient of human nature, but influences all the judgments and pursuits of man ; and that its traces are visible in his mode of contemplating and studying nature, in the pleasure which he derives from the productions of art, in the rule by which he estimates their value, and in his practice of religion and the love of science. This idea or feeling, or longing after Infinitude, (for M. ANCILLON seems at a loss what name to give it,) he considers as innate, and consequently as discoverable in the savage as well as in the poet or the philosopher ; and since it must, from its nature, be obscure and indistinct, because we can conceive only a negative idea of infinity, the love for the *indefinite* is, in his opinion, the representative of that tendency of our nature ; so that, wherever the former appears, the latter must be deemed the real source. Scenes of Nature, the works of the graphic Arts, Music, and Poetry, please only because and in proportion as they gratify and cherish the feeling of or longing for infinity ; or it is only by their being indefinite that they become attractive ;

‘ The great secret of the artist (he says) is to excite in the mind the feeling of infinity by presenting to it finite forms. Those productions, which are merely regular and correct, never charm the spectator, and leave no deep impression behind them : executed without enthusiasm, they cannot inspire it. Genius only knows how to choose subjects which awaken in souls of a similar stamp a great number of ideas, and to treat these subjects so as to unite in the production beauty and expression, which conceal and reveal a whole world of feelings and ideas, and appear more inexhaustible in proportion as they are contemplated with greater attention. Masterpieces in the arts plunge the beholder into a profound reverie, make him conscious of his own powers, and agitate him by emotions and awe. What he sees is finite : but what he does not see, what he suspects, feels, and imagines, is infinite.’

The tendency of works of art, and particularly of music and poetry, to produce *le sentiment de l'infini*, is the cause of their being attached by all nations to the exercise of religion, and  
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of the near relation which exists between them. — We need not wonder that this essay should prove altogether vague, and productive of no clear ideas, since it is grounded on a mere obscure feeling, a something that not only baffles expression, but even eludes comprehension. Such a principle can never lead to satisfactory conclusions.

The essay on *Great Characters*, being less connected with metaphysics, is more interesting. It is replete with excellent sentiments and practical observations on the causes which give rise to the formation of real greatness, as well as on the influence which truly great characters exercise over the age in which they live, and the world at large. In the whole history of Europe, the author reckons no more than two epochs, which combined all the circumstances that are requisite to furnish a rich harvest of great characters, viz. the period of the youthful strength of the republics of Sparta, Athens, and Rome, and the middle age, commencing with the crusades, and distinguished by the spirit of chivalry. We cannot omit to remark how much it has been the custom of some modern authors, who possess noble sentiments, to contemplate and describe the last period with peculiar partiality, and an evident desire for its return. This fact must be considered as a symptom of the striking deficiency of our cotemporaries, in the qualities which favourably distinguished the generations of the middle ages: but it also deserves attention that we are at present too apt to be attracted by the strong and marked features of those remarkable times, and forget not only the very partial existence of the excellent qualities which we admire, but even the alloy of vice by which their value was so greatly diminished. We must also observe that the features and events, which history records, are neither the only nor the principal circumstances which influence the formation of greatness of character. She takes the stamp, which she imprints on her epochs, rather from a few individuals than from the situation of a great majority of mankind: yet the humble sphere of private life affords scarcely less scope and exercise for true greatness, than the grand theatre of political contests or national struggles; and it is not a sufficient reason for bestowing on the middle ages so high a distinction, that they can boast of a number of men of vigorous minds and lofty sentiments in the higher stations of life.

In the essay next in order, on *the Majestic and the Simple*, we find many interesting passages; particularly on the high value of simplicity in style and in character. We translate a few remarks on the former attainment:

• It is equally a violation of simplicity when we attempt to elevate small objects by exaggeration of style, and when we wish to render great objects still greater by a false majesty of expression. In the former case, we betray ridiculous pretensions, which impose on no one; in the latter, we manifest, instead of energy, only effort; we appear little without the object appearing greater; and we excite a mean idea of our strength, by taking vast pains to appear in unison with our subject. Far from shewing that we are above it, and view it at a distance, we prove that we do not even feel its greatness, or that we are astonished and despair of reaching it. When the object is immense, and beyond all conception, simplicity is peculiarly appropriate. On speaking of God, of Nature, of the Universe, of Time, or of Eternity, we ought to avoid the semblance of wishing to rival these stupendous objects, or of endeavouring to rise to their height by bloated and figurative language. This would be imitating the giants of the fable, who placed Ossa on Pelion to scale Olympus, and who perished under the weight of the pile which they had formed. As we can never employ any but a finite language in speaking of infinity, the subject will always exceed the expression. This we must acknowledge; and we should maintain a sort of greatness by sheltering ourselves in simplicity, which alone has the power of establishing some relation between the finite and the infinite.

*The Nature of Poetry, and the Difference between Ancient and Modern Poetry*, form the subjects of the two next papers. In the latter, the author expresses his opinion, in contradiction to that of *Schiller* and some other writers, that the difference observable between ancient and modern poetry lies far more in the subject than in the manner and tone. *Schiller* characterizes ancient poetry as *Nâïf*, and the modern as *Sentimental*: but M. ANCILLON prefers to express the difference by saying that the former dwells more on objects of the senses, and the latter on ideas; that finite forms are more perfect among the antients, and that there is more tendency to the infinite among the moderns.

We remember to have seen this subject treated by another modern continental author of some celebrity, who ingeniously exemplifies the distinction in question by a comparison of two monologues equally remarkable for excellence, and turning on the same subject, viz. that of the Ajax of Sophocles, before he puts an end to his life, and that of Shakspeare's Hamlet, in which he consults with himself whether he shall commit the act of suicide. Hamlet argues and makes reflections on the lot of man, on death, and on a future life, but rather considers the whole human race than himself. Ajax has felt but not reflected on the evils of life; *right* and *wrong* have no share in guiding his feelings or his resolution; nor does he look beyond himself. The dissimilarity in the issue corresponds with that which prevails in the preceding disposition of their minds.



We were surprised to find no notice taken by M. ANCILLON of the singular difference between antient and modern poets, with regard to their descriptions of the scenes of nature. No one has ever compared Pope's translation of Homer with the original without being struck with the embellishments, which the translator has often added to the Greek bard's short though faithful descriptions of inanimate nature, and by which he seems involuntarily to express a sense of the deficiency of the original in this respect; and who has not felt a coldness in the finest passages of Virgil or Horace on rural subjects, when placed by the side of the glowing descriptions of Thomson, of Goldsmith, of Gresset, or of *Wieland*? It is not difficult to account for this circumstance. Children feel much greater interest in the scenes of life than in all the beauties of a landscape; and how should it have been otherwise with men in the ages which become so attractive to us in their poets, on account of their resemblance to childhood!—The character of modern poetry is the necessary result of the whole state of modern cultivation, as that of antiquity was a natural consequence of the early stages of mental improvement. To blame the poet of the seventeenth or eighteenth century, because he does not produce works in the spirit of Sophocles or of Horace, is to blame the progress of mankind at large; and we conceive that it must be nearly as impossible for a poet of our age to write in the manner of the antients, as it would have been for Euripides to write in the style of Shakspeare. It is therefore neither a proof of poverty of talent in the individual, nor a sufficient ground for pronouncing the sentence of inferiority on the poets, of any age, if all attempts at such imitations have failed. The sentiment of M. ANCILLON that subjects and materials, much more than the manner of viewing and using them, constitute the principal distinction between the antient and the modern poetry, does not therefore appear to us to be well grounded; and we are rather inclined to think that the difference in the cast of mind in the poets is the main point on which the distinction must turn.

Scepticism, the first principle of philosophy, and the various systems of metaphysics which have appeared in Germany in the course of the last twenty years, furnish the bases for the three essays which are contained in the second volume of this work.—In the first, the author refutes the arguments of Sextus Empiricus, as well as those of Mr. Hume, and endeavours to shew that the most daring scepticism has a tendency to produce the most decided dogmatism; while to believe with wisdom is as consistent with the nature of the human mind, as it is indispensable to human happiness. In the second, he enumerates

rates and criticizes the various attempts which have been made towards establishing one principle as the point of union of all our knowledge, concerning ourselves and the world around us; and from the ill success which, in his opinion, has attended all these attempts, he draws the conclusion that, as it is impossible to discover any such first principle, therefore it is advisable to rest satisfied with the two facts which are taught by experience, viz. the existence of *mind*, which is not a part of a material world, and of a *material world* which is in itself independent of mind.

We next meet with an account of the theoretical part of the *Critical Philosophy* of Prof. *Kant*, and of the systems of M. *Fichte* and M. *Schelling*, which have sprung from the former. M. ANCILLON considers none of these as satisfactory, and leaves his readers to look out for something better, or to be contented with the suggestions of common sense; which will at any rate suffice to conduct them through life, and enable them far better to consult their real interests than the subtle speculations by which, (as he expresses himself, with equal politeness and irony towards the German philosophers,) a people become more admirable than admired, and make the universe their own, but which render useless to them the world in which they live. Those readers, who wish to form some acquaintance with the principal features of these philosophical phenomena, will find in this essay an useful guide; and we will leave their unprejudiced judgment to decide in whose favor they will pronounce, and under whose banners they will in future seek wisdom. — We do not conceive, however, that our desire of promoting the welfare of our species, and of supporting the cause of useful science, constitutes it our duty to advise our readers to search for the grand secret in the labyrinth of the German School; nor do we wish that the philosophers of this nation should ever have occasion, like their brethren of the continent, to console themselves under the loss of external liberty and freedom of expression, with the consciousness of having concentrated all human knowledge in one point, and of having broken even the shackles of matter and of a world beyond the boundaries of their own mind.

**ART. VIII.** *Campagnes des Armées Françaises, &c. ; i. e. The Campaigns of the French Armies in Spain and Portugal, in the Years 1808 and 1809, under the command of His Majesty the Emperor and King, and his Generals; preceded by a statistical Description of Spain and Portugal, and by an historical View of the Events which occurred there, previously to the Abdication of Charles IV. A Work intended to collect together the great Achievements and heroic Actions of the French Military, &c. To which are subjoined biographical Sketches of the Generals who have fallen in these Campaigns, and Notices of the Sieges and Battles which formerly occurred in these Kingdoms. With Maps and Portraits. Vol. I. containing the statistical Description of Spain, with a Map of Spain and Portugal. 8vo. pp. 400. Paris. 1809. Imported by Dulau and Co.*

**I**T will appear from the title that this work, which is to be comprized in three volumes, is intended to gratify the vanity of the French army and the French people: but that part of it which is now before us contains no military details, being entirely confined to statistics; of which a more complete view is given, if we may credit the preface, than has been afforded by any book hitherto published on the subject. Spain being (we fear) about to become, like Italy, an appendage to France, her riches and natural productions are matters of pleasing speculation to *Bonaparte's* warriors and people; who hope from this conquest to derive fresh means of gratifying their vanity and avarice. It is to be lamented that the Government and the inhabitants of Spain are not sufficiently alive to the value of their native land, and that they must learn its importance from the sword and the pen of the victor. Certain it is that the French are more alert in fighting for and in calculating the riches of the peninsula, than the Spaniards and Portuguese themselves; and their country now seems destined to pass under the yoke of *Bonaparte*, as in the reign of Augustus it submitted to the power of the Romans. For us this cannot be a pleasant circumstance: but, as our contest with the French on that arena would be on very unequal terms, surely we must now see that it is preferable to leave Spain to her unavoidable fate, than to waste the blood and treasures of Great Britain in desperate and hopeless struggles.—We may collect from this work some particulars relative to Spain, in addition to those which we have given in the fifth article of this Appendix.

After an introduction, containing various useful notices of the several maps and charts of Spain and Portugal which have been published; of the latitude and longitude of principal places; of the different works and travels which have appeared in print concerning these countries; and of weights, measures, and coins; we enter on a geographical and statistical abstract

of the state of Spain: in which it is said that this country measures from north to south 195 leagues, and from west to east 219. We imagine that these numbers are too large: but, supposing that they are exact, and that Spain is a parallelogram, its surface would contain 42,705 square leagues: yet we are immediately told that this country, according to M. Laborde, measures only 25,137 square leagues; or, according to M. M. Lopez and Bertuch, 9278 square miles, or 25,769 square leagues: but here again a palpable error occurs, since the superficies cannot present more square leagues than square miles. If the subsequent details be not more correct than the statement with which the work commences, it cannot be worthy of consultation.

The mountains of Spain are next enumerated, with their heights; her rivers and lakes are specified; her climate and soil are described; and a long list is given of her productions. This enumeration is followed by sections on Natural History, including the vegetable, animal, and fossil kingdoms. Among the animals of the peninsula, the Merino sheep occupy considerable attention: but, though this race has been hitherto the pride of Spain, and their wool a source of great wealth, the author is of opinion that, as they are now spread over Europe, this branch of exportation will be lost to Spain in thirty or forty years; and he quotes the words of the minister D'Aranda, who, foreseeing the consequence likely to happen, said, "If my advice had been taken, not a single Spanish sheep should have ever entered France."

Under the head of gold and silver mines, we have a particular account of the large quantity of the precious metals which the Romans drew from this empire, according to the representations given in 1 Macc. viii. 3, in Livy, Pliny, &c: but this splendid detail is succeeded by the melancholy fact that almost all antient mines have disappeared, and by a specification which is not very promising; yet it is not improbable that the French flatter themselves with the hope of finding Spain to be again what she was before the discovery of America, the Mexico and Peru of the old world. She certainly abounds with a great variety of mineral riches.

Respecting these mines of gold and silver, we are presented with the following enumeration, on the authority of M. Laborde, a translation of whose work will shortly come before us:

*Gold Mines.* 1. A mine formerly worked in the Sierra de Leytan in Seville, of which vestiges are still to be traced. 2. A mine of gold, little known, in the valley of Hecho, in Aragon. 3. Grains of gold may be easily distinguished in a layer of ordinary quartz, somewhat ferruginous, which runs in a deep valley in Old Castile,

Castile, two leagues from Guadarrama; this mine is untouched. 4. We find gold combined with emery in two mines of this latter substance, one near Alcoces, in Estremadura, the other in the territory of Molina in Arragon: but the quantity is so small that the expence of extracting it would exceed the profit.

*Silver mines.* These are more numerous, and we find them in several places. 1. At Calzena in Arragon, formerly worked. 2. At Benasque, in the same province, also formerly worked. 3. At Bielza, in the same province, wrought also in former times. 4. At a league and a half from Almodovar del Campo, lately abandoned in consequence of being filled with water. 5. On a very steep mountain in a rock of granitz, in the village of Zamalen; this also, having been overflowed, has been deserted. 6. On the mountains in the vicinity of Almazarron, in Murcia, whence it is said that the Romans yearly obtained 25,000 drachmas of silver. 7. On the Sierra Morena, a league from Guadalcanal, in Seville; this was relinquished in 1635, having been intentionally flooded by those who worked it, in order to revenge themselves on the government for the new duties which had been imposed. Many authors, as well antient as modern, have boasted of its immense produce. The Cardinal Cinsuegos has presented a very pompous account of it in his *History of St. Francis of Borgia*; and we read in that of the *House of Herasti*, that it had produced 8,000,000 livres, the whole of which had been expended in constructing a part of the Escorial. Caranga, in his *Treatise on Spanish Money*, asserts that this mine regularly yielded, every week, 60,000 ducats. The minister of State Carvajal employed the celebrated Bowles to examine it in 1755, who reported that an enormous sum must be expended even on the chance of hitting the vein, and that perhaps, when recovered, it would be found exhausted. These reasons, and the riches of the American mines, caused this to be forgotten. Since that period, a company of foreigners entered into an agreement with the King to work it afresh, and expended a considerable capital in the undertaking; but, after having laid the shafts dry, they could not find the vein, though more than two millions had been sunk in the experiment. 8. At Puerto Blanco, the village of Cazalla, in Seville, which contains *virgin silver* mixed with pyrites of copper in quartz, and a little iron, within a few feet of the surface. 9. Near to Alanis, and two leagues and a half from the village of Guadalcanal; this mine had been worked by the Romans, and since their time: it yields *virgin silver*. The antient wells and galleries have been discovered. It was worked again about the middle of the eighteenth century by a person who dug two shafts and galleries on the summit of the mountain, but who abandoned his project, from a want either of money or of skill. 10. Another mine of silver, celebrated in the times of the Carthaginians and Romans, is to be found two leagues from Linarez in Andalusia. It is descended by a shaft of two thousand feet deep, which opens into several galleries: it has been for a considerable time abandoned; though it was worked in the seventeenth century. We here find a vein of five feet thick, from which many pieces of silver are taken.\*

To this list of the mines of the precious metals, which cannot but be very gratifying to French cupidity, are added notices of the mines of copper, lead, iron, antimony, cobalt, mercury, cinnabar, emery, sulphur, and coal, of which last mentioned article many traces occur in Spain. Pit-coal is said to be very abundant at Aviles in the Asturias; in the mountain of Barboxeda, in New Castile; at Grusteau and at Grans in Arragon; and it is stated that nine mines of coal are to be found in Catalonia, of which that of Montalona is the most productive.

Among the mineral riches of Spain, even the *Diamond* is reckoned, of which three mines are specified in the kingdom of Seville; and after this brilliant jewel, we are introduced to the more useful articles of alum, vitriol, jet, petroleum, rock and purging salt, gypsum, &c.

Of the mines of marble, alabaster, and jasper, a long enumeration is given. Marble is stated to be very general throughout the provinces of Spain, and to possess great variety and beauty. To these items is subjoined an account of mineral water, and of hot, petrifying, and intermitting springs.

We are told that the population of Spain in antient times amounted to 78,000,000; (a stupidly exaggerated reckoning;) that under the Romans it was 40,000,000; that, under Ferdinand and Isabella, A. D. 1474, it was 21,700,800, but this exceeds the truth by 8,000,000 at least; that in 1688 it was only 12,000,000; that in 1700 it was reduced to 8,000,000; and that under Philip V. in 1715 it was even so low as 6,000,000. From this period, however, it seems to have improved. In 1768 it was found to be 9,307,803: in 1788, it advanced to 10,268,150; and by a return made in 1798, the actual population is said to have been 12,009,879. According to the estimate of M. *Bertuch*, in 1805, it was then 11,500,000. That the population of Spain is less now than it was at some former periods is generally allowed, and eighteen different causes are here assigned for this diminution.

This compilation exhibits also an abstract of the state and administration of the church; of the government; of the army and navy\*; of the finances, for the elucidation of which an ample table is given; of the administration of justice; of the nobility; and of the royal and military orders.

The manufactures and commerce of Spain occupy many pages; and of its science, literature, and cultivation of the arts,

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\* In 1805, the navy of Spain, according to M. *Bertuch*, consisted of 50 ships of the line, thirty frigates, and 100 smaller vessels.

as full a display is made as the case would allow. It is, however, mentioned as a matter of surprize, that Madrid should be the only capital of a great kingdom in Europe which is without an Academy of Sciences. We are presented with the following notices relative to the history of the press :

' The art of printing was early introduced into Spain ; being carried there by the Germans, who travelled from city to city with their types and presses. From the presses of Valencia, proceeded in 1474 a *Sallust*, and in 1475 a *Comprehensorium*. Printing was in a short space of time diffused through the whole of Spain ; and from the middle of the sixteenth century presses were set up at Toledo, Madrid, Cuença, Valladolid, Baeza, Seville, Grenada, Zaragossa, Valencia, Salamanca, Alcalá de Henarez, and Medina del Campo. Those of the three last mentioned cities were the most celebrated. The Polyglott Bible proceeded from the presses of Alcalá. *De Castro, del Canto, de Millis, de Piamonte*, and many other printers of Alcalá, were famous. At this epoch the four Spanish presses issued numerous domestic and foreign publications, not less remarkable for their merit than for the beauty and magnificence of their execution, and which are not inferior to the most elegant editions of other countries of Europe. From the middle of the seventeenth century, printing was on the decline : but in the middle of the eighteenth the art experienced a revival, and *Sanchez* carried it to perfection ; having printed a great number of works, which are all celebrated for beautiful execution. *Ibarra* is not less famous for his superb edition of *Don Quixote* in 4 Vols. quarto ; though it has since been surpassed by the Spanish translation of *Sallust*, by *Don Gabriel, the Younger* ; by the Works of *Vives* ; by the Treatise on Samaritan Coins by *Bayer* ; by the History of Spain, &c. The ink employed by *Ibarra* is so superior, that our printers have often endeavoured to discover the secret of its composition ; and the works which he published have rivalled those of the renowned *Bodoni* of Florence. *De Montfort* of Valencia is not less illustrious. Punches, matrices, types, and paper, are all fabricated in Spain, not only at Madrid, but also in several of the provinces ; where the Spanish presses have produced editions of books not less fine than that of *Sallust*.'

We think that this publication has been compiled in haste, and in a subsequent edition it will perhaps receive many corrections and improvements.

ART. IX. *Description du Pachalik, &c. i.e. A Description of the Pachalik of Bagdad, followed by an Historical Notice of the Wahabees, and by some other Pieces relative to the History and Literature of the East.* By M. \* \* \*. 8vo. pp. 260. Paris, 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 9s. sewed.

THE pieces which compose this small oriental collection are four in number. After the description of the Pachalik of Bagdad,

Bagdad, and an account of the origin and progress of the Wahabees, we are presented with translations of detached pieces of Persian poetry, and with a series of observations on the Yezidees, a sect in some degree Mohammedan, and established several centuries ago in Mesopotamia by a Sheik of the name of Yezid. The account of the Pachalik, and the history of the Wahabees, are the parts of the book which are most deserving of attention, being written with considerable knowledge of the subject, though in a loose and ill-digested manner. The author's name is not mentioned, but he is described as having long resided in those countries, and as having composed these tracts for the purpose of their being read to a literary society of which he is a member.

Amid all the writer's professions for the advancement of literature, however, it is amusing to observe that commercial arrangements are the real object of his labours. He is much enraged with our envoy, Sir Harford Jones; who, he pretends, has rendered himself not less odious to the government of Bagdad than to the Europeans settled there. After having enlarged on the commercial advantages of the situation of Bagdad, he adds, with some *naïveté*, 'I will just remark that it would be proper to establish in that city a French factory, or at least to obtain a firman from the Porte, to allot to His Imperial Majesty's consul a house suitable to his rank; in the same way in which it was granted to the English resident, on the application of the English ambassador at Constantinople.'

We extract the passages in the account of the Pachalik, which appear to us to contain the most useful information.

'The climate of Bagdad, though very healthy, is subject to excessive heat in summer; during which the inhabitants find it necessary to pass a considerable part of the day in their cellars, and to sleep at night on their roofs. Travellers have often spoken of the Sam-yeli, a burning south-west wind, which brings with it a sulphureous smell, and prevails at Bagdad, as well as throughout Mesopotamia, from the beginning of July to the middle of August. It is not, however, quite so fatal as it has been reported to be by those travellers who assert that it suffocates all who are exposed to it on elevated ground; since its effects may be avoided by falling prostrate, or by wrapping up the face very tightly with a cloak. It is preceded by squalls, and by a hot whirlwind obscuring the horizon. Its pestilential nature probably arises from passing over the sulphureous and bituminous grounds near the Euphrates and the Tigris.

'The inhabitants of Bagdad, so far from being abject slaves, are active, enterprising, and jealous of controul. The better ranks are civil, well informed, and obliging to strangers. Luxury is confined to the Pacha and the great families. The dress is similar to that which prevails in the rest of Turkey. Many Persians reside here, who carry on the traffic of the place and are protected by the government, and



and who are in general intelligent and respectable people. — Unfortunately, neither libraries nor public schools are to be found here : but we meet with a few seminaries inhabited by dervises, and two or three mausoleums, magnificently decorated, in which their sheiks and prophets are interred, and a kind of asylum is afforded to beggars. A number of small chapels also are erected, to which the people resort to perform their ablutions, at the accustomed hours of prayer. The public markets are well stocked ; provisions and fruit being brought thither from all quarters, and sold at moderate prices.

‘ The Pachas of Bagdad have been considered at all times as the most powerful in the Ottoman dominions, and are supposed to possess a right to the title of Caliph from inhabiting the capital in which the antient Arabian pontiffs resided. Placed at the extremity of Turkey, they exercise an authority which is almost independent of the Porte ; and great delicacy is observed towards them on the part of the Ottoman court, that they may not be tempted to revolt. They assume to themselves, whenever they please, the right of declining to send their forces to co-operate with those of the Grand Seigneur ; and no objection is made to the reasons which they allege, provided that they be accompanied by a sum of money. During more than a century, all the Pachas of Bagdad have been originally Georgian slaves, raised by intrigue and accident from that humble station to the hazardous post of Vizir. The forces of the government of Bagdad may be increased in a time of urgency to 30,000 men, infantry and cavalry ; and this number would be still greater if several Arab tribes had not withdrawn themselves to join the Wahabees, while others have set up the standard of independence. The Kurds, of whom a great proportion have revolted, are the best horsemen ; their arms consist of a pistol, a lance, a sabre, and sometimes a carabine. The Arabs have only a lance : but, being robust and intrepid, they make a dextrous use of it. The Bagdad infantry are armed with a musket and sabre, and a small part of them are disciplined on the European plan. The revenue is between seven and eight millions of piastres, and would be more, were it not for the decline of the trade of Bussorah. The population of Bussorah is now reduced to 50,000, a diminution which is caused by the desolation that has been spread around by the Wahabees, and by the insalubrity which has arisen from the neglect of the neighbourhood of the city.

‘ The banks of both the Euphrates and the Tigris are infested with robbers, who are accustomed to swim aboard of the boats on the water, and to carry off whatever they can seize. Travellers have often been surprized at the length of the distances which the Arabs will pass, floating on the water. They accomplish these voyages by means of a goat-skin, of which they sew very compactly the different openings, with the exception of the skin of one of the legs, which they use as a pipe to blow up the rest of the skin, and afterward twist and hold it very tight. After this preparation, they strip themselves naked, form a package of their clothes, and, tying it on their shoulders, lay themselves flat on the goat-skin ; on which they float very much at their ease, paddling with their hands and feet, and smoking their pipe all the time. Not only men but women and girls

adopt this method of crossing the river, and make the air re-echo with their songs while they are passing.

After the junction of the Tigris and the Euphrates at the beautifully situated town of Korna, their waters roll on for several miles without mixing. Those of the Euphrates are clear, in consequence of its tranquil current; while those of the Tigris are turbid from its rapidity. Not far from Hilla, or Hela, in a northerly direction, and towards the Euphrates, are to be seen the relics of the once mighty Babylon. They are interesting only from the recollections which they excite, and have not beauty in themselves like the remains of Palmyra, Balbec, or Persepolis, among which we meet at every step with traces of magnificent architecture. The remains of Babylon consist in a shapeless mass of ruins, and are more calculated to inspire melancholy than admiration. Like all cities that have been built of brick, it has no striking monument left standing. The Arabs make a trade of digging the ground for the purpose of finding medals of bronze, silver, and sometimes of gold; as well as vases, metal images, and utensils: even the bricks they carry off by water for the purpose of sale. These bricks are all of a square form, five inches thick, and bearing on one of their sides an hieroglyphic inscription, the characters of which are still very plain. The ruins of Nineveh are on the Tigris, opposite to the city of Mosul, about three hundred miles above Bagdad. Mosul appears to have been built out of these ruins. The remains of the antient Niubis consist in like manner of mere ruins, and are worth visiting chiefly for the beauty of the situation.

The account of the origin and progress of the Wahabees is given in the same crude and ill-arranged method as that of Bagdad. In consequence of the Wahabees having been known in Europe only of late years, the public in general are not aware that the origin of this sect took place so far back as the middle of the last century. Their tenets differ from the Mohammedan, not in respect of their idea of the Supreme Being or of the sacred volume, the Koran, which they believe to have been written in heaven by the hand of angels: but in regard to the power and character of Mohammed, whom they consider to have been a mere human being, the messenger indeed of God on earth, but not worthy to have his name joined with that of the Deity in the adorations of men. The Wahabees are therefore not so much the propagators of a new faith, as the reformers of the Mohammedan religion. Like others of this sect, they are circumcised; and they observe similar forms of prayer, the same ablutions, the same abstinences, the same yearly fast, (that of Ramadan,) and the same solemnities. Their mosques, however, are devoid of ornament; and the name of Mohammed is not mentioned in their religious exercises. They reject in the same manner the divine mission of Jesus Christ. They imitate the early Mohammedans  
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most effectually in the vigour with which they spread their doctrine by force of arms; and they have been accustomed to present it to the neighbouring tribes at the point of the sword, calling on them in decisive language to "believe or die." When they encounter resistance, their practice has been to sacrifice the males and spare the females, but to confiscate and take possession of the whole property. In case of voluntary submission, a Wahabee governor is put over the subjugated tribe, and a tenth of the property exacted, as well as a tenth of the male population levied for the military service. By these means, the Wahabee leaders have found themselves in possession of large treasures, and at the head of formidable armies. Animated by religious enthusiasm, these fanatics rush forwards to danger with incredible courage, and attack their enemies in the firm belief that, by dying in the field, they will receive the crown of martyrdom. Were they possessed of the advantages of discipline, and commanded by able leaders, they might become the conquerors of Asia.

In the preface to this book, a hope is expressed that the public will extend encouragement to the author, and induce him to undertake more laborious researches. With such encouragement, however, we can scarcely venture to flatter him, till he has learned to condense his matter into a smaller compass, and has accustomed himself to a clearer arrangement. The account of the Yezidees is short, and is not the production of the same author, but of a missionary named *Garzoni*; from whom the writer of the preceding tracts might have taken some hints on the score of composition.

ART. X. *Coup d'Œil sur l'État actuel*, &c. i. e. A View of the present state of antient Literature and History in Germany; being a Report made to the third Class of the French Institute, by CHARLES VILLERS, Correspondent of that Class, &c. 8vo. pp. 153. Amsterdam and Paris. 1809.

WHATEVER advantages may have resulted from the introduction of the vernacular tongues of the respective countries of Europe, in communicating literary information and discoveries by the press, it is evident that the cosmopolitical spirit has been considerably diminished among men of letters. The literature of each civilized nation is become strictly national, and has assumed its own peculiar features; and the friends of science have cultivated the common field in separate bands, which, though they have preserved the relations of peace with each other, have been far from acting in

concert, or deriving all the advantages of mutual exertions. Intent on their own immediate neighbours, they have often completely lost sight of their more distant fellow-labourers; and when they have felt a desire of becoming acquainted with the latter, they have been often so much struck with the singularities of their proceedings, as either hastily to pronounce them to be unworthy of farther notice, or to be deterred from cultivating a more intimate acquaintance with them by the difficulties which they find in their way. Great national partiality, and even a certain illiberality of judgment, are almost unavoidable consequences of these circumstances; since comparatively few persons possess modesty enough to suspend their judgment, when they feel no inclination to enter on a minute examination of the grounds of it; and much more than the perusal of a few translations, or even of a few originals, (which are perhaps rather offered by chance than selected by discretion,) is required to discover the spirit which prevades a whole class of men or their writings.

The plan which the Institute of France has adopted, in order to procure, from time to time, through some of its corresponding members, encyclopedic accounts of the literature of other nations, promises to contribute towards remedying these disadvantages as far as they are susceptible of remedy; and these accounts will have the more chance of being considered as impartial, if they are not drawn up by natives of the countries which furnish their materials. M. VILLIERS, who is well known as an intelligent and instructive writer, has undertaken the brief work before us to describe the state and progress of some of the most generally interesting branches of literature in Germany, during the last three or four years. Of his competency to perform the task, as far as an intimate acquaintance with his subject constitutes that fitness, he has given sufficient proof in this *View*, and in another publication respecting the Universities of Germany; and the literati of that country will not find reason for complaining of a want of liberality, or due appreciation of their merits; since, though a foreigner, he appears to be as deeply interested in the fate and reputation of German literature, and is as enthusiastic in the praise of it, as any professor of Leipzig or Göttingen might be expected to be. It is, indeed, the principal fault which we have to allege against this report, that it does little more than eulogize; and that it depreciates that praise by bestowing it indiscriminately, and often nearly in the same terms, on men who in our opinion ought to occupy very different stations in the scale of merit. Though we feel much inclined to admit the truth of the assertion that the modern

*Germania literaria* deserves to be better known than it is, we are also convinced that frequent aberrations from the rules of sound taste, and the passion for new systems and hypotheses in all sciences, have much contributed to expose its scholars to the reproach of pedantry and of fondness for contention, trifling, and infidelity. M. VILLERS's account, however, will give rise to the pleasing and important reflection, that, even under circumstances the most discouraging to literary labours, and during a war the most destructive to the order and prosperity of society, the Muses have found safe retreats, and the zeal of their friends has not suffered itself to be depressed.

In an introductory chapter, the reporter endeavours to describe the general character of German literature, and to point out the causes from which its peculiar features are derived. This subject would have deserved a much more minute investigation than he has here attempted; and it would have been particularly within his province to trace the combination of circumstances and situations, which have imprinted a striking singularity on a great majority of German literary productions, in the present century. He mentions the independence of German authors, as being unconnected with any rich or powerful court, or large metropolis; and the evident predilection for religious inquiries which is observable in the whole Protestant part of Germany, by which, ever since the time of the Reformation, the study of many branches of science, even of such as appear but distantly related to religion, has taken a peculiar direction. To these causes we must at least add the nature and constitution of the establishments for scientific and professional education, and the rivalry of the German princes: which has often been directed towards the schools and universities of their dominions, since it could no longer be occupied in petty military conflicts; and which has made them espouse a new cause or a new system, merely from the hope of sharing in the reputation which it might possibly acquire. The good effects of this rivalry have probably outweighed its injurious consequences: but those who are well acquainted with the local circumstances will admit that it has had a considerable share in the formation of the character, or, as some may call it, the *want* of character of German philosophy, and divinity in particular. We translate a passage from M. VILLERS's introductory chapter on this subject, which will shew how highly he is inclined to estimate the literary men of Germany:

‘ Though the German scholar is himself secluded from what is called the world, yet his public is dispersed over a vast extent of country,

country, from Berne to the gates of St. Petersburg. He has therefore no concern with the local spirit which is produced by great concentration. The multiplicity of places and countries included within his range does not allow it to exist, and the local spirit of one place is neutralized by that of another. On the one hand, consequently, the public judges with considerable liberality; and, on the other, the literary man enjoys in his labours a very great independence, and finds himself completely unshackled by any influence that would be foreign to his studies or meditations. Hence the German literati have, perhaps, a more truly classic *tact* than any others, and modernize the least: hence they possess so great a facility in entering into the spirit of nations and of ages so different from those of the present day; and hence originates their superior success in archæological researches, and in the interpretation and translation of the antients, particularly of the Greeks, either on account of some secret affinity between the two nations, as the analogy of the two languages seems to indicate, and of a common origin which loses itself in the remotest time, or from some other cause.

The details of the review of German literature are given under the following 13 heads, rather awkwardly divided: Encyclopedia of classical studies; Latin literature; Greek literature; Translations; Oriental literature; Biblical literature; Paleography; Archæology and Mythology; Antient geography; History; History of religion and the church; History of literature; Programmata, pamphlets, &c. In each of these sections, the notices respecting particular works belonging to it are preceded by a few general observations, most of which are very uninteresting and unsatisfactory.

On the subject of classical literature, it is observed that, for some years past, the German press has paid much more attention to the writers of Greece than to those of Rome, in editions of their works, and in publications relative to them. The striking resemblance of the two languages, and the facility with which the expressions and the constructions of the German may be assimilated to those of the Greek, become additional inducements to cultivate an intimacy with the latter, and afford an uncommon gratification in the pursuit. It has been for some time, and still is, the favourite object and the pride of many of the best scholars in Germany, to furnish faithful translations of the antient writers; and their success, particularly with regard to the Greeks, has in return contributed to promote the taste for classical studies. To no one, in this respect, is his country so much indebted as to M. *Voss*; the veteran *Wieland* has likewise of late employed his elegant pen principally in translations; and among the most modern publications of this kind, the translation of all the works of Plato, by M. *Schleiermacher* of Halle, deserves particular notice,

notice, on account of the critical and philosophical annotations which accompany it. Plato is the favourite of the German philosophers of the modern school; who are proud to refer to many sentiments of the father of philosophical science, as a sanction for their own opinions.

The high eulogium, which M. VILLERS passes on so many German critics and commentators, proves his unwillingness to join in the accusation of dulness and prolixity which is urged against them as a body. We do not, however, consider this reflection on those writers as unfounded; and the faults imputed to them are undoubtedly, to some extent, the inevitable consequence of the situation in which the greater portion of them write and publish. The vast number of professors and masters in the universities and great schools have all a character to acquire and to support with the public. Not only their own reputation, but in a high degree that of the establishment to which they belong, depends on the name which they obtain for learning. Hence many are obliged to exercise their ingenuity and industry on the same subject, and at the same time; and to publish occasionally becomes almost a duty inseparable from their stations. In the uncommon emulation which hence arises, every one looks for something that may be new, and evince either ingenuity or uncommon industry; he ventures on conjectures, or he adds to the collection of facts and materials; and he greatly prefers the risk of being considered as too bold or as tedious, to remaining unknown, or exposed to the reproach of having closely followed the foot-steps of his predecessors.—How easily is the man of secluded habits dazzled by the hope of being ranked as learned among the learned!

We abstain from noticing any particular new editions of the classic authors of antiquity: but we cannot forbear to direct the attention of the student in Greek literature who is at the same time acquainted with the German language, to the admirable Greek and German dictionary of Professor *Schneider*, which has within a very short period passed through several impressions.

It would be absurd to expect a predilection for *oriental literature*, or great progress in the knowledge of it, in a country which has no immediate connection with the east, nor any particular interest in cultivating an acquaintance with it. That branch of it which bears directly on the exposition of the Hebrew scriptures has, indeed, been long since sedulously cultivated by the German divines: but they have seldom extended their attention farther, or pursued their inquiries independently of a view to scriptural interpretation. A collection  
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of literary productions of the east has, however, been commenced on a large scale by the present Duke of Saxe Gotha; who sent out, in the year 1804, a M. *Setzer*, for the express purpose of purchasing in Syria, Egypt, and Arabia, valuable manuscripts and printed works; of which this gentleman has transmitted a very considerable number.

The modern *Biblical Criticism* of German divines has often been the subject of regret, and not unfrequently of censure, with those who apprehend from unrestrained inquiry a diminution of respect for the vital principles of Christianity. To persons who are so easily alarmed, it will be consolatory to be informed that, perhaps with the exception of Dr. *Paulus's* commentary on the New Testament, and an attempt of M. *Schleiermacher* to invalidate the authenticity of the 1st epistle to Timothy, the heterodoxy of Germany does not appear to have given of late any new reason for complaint, by an eagerness to publish and to diffuse its heresy.

Of the other divisions under which the present writer has arranged his materials, those which treat on *History*, political, ecclesiastical, and literary, are the richest. Among the writers of the first of these classes, M. *de Schlotzer* of Göttingen, and M. *de Kotzebue*, have distinguished themselves; the former by his collection and investigation of documents serving to throw light on the history of the nations which inhabit the Russian Empire; the latter by his history of Prussia, for which he has drawn many important materials from the secret archives of the *Teutonic order*, at Königsberg, which had before been quite inaccessible. — If any species of literary production can be said to belong to Germany almost exclusively, it is that which treats on the *history of literature*. Whether the search after names and titles, which it includes, is peculiarly congenial to the taste and habits of German scholars, or whether the frequent change of systems and opinions among them has led them particularly to this subject, (as well as to the study of the history of philosophy, which has occupied many modern German writers,) we will not determine: but M. VILLERS is certainly correct when he says that no one, who wishes to be well acquainted with any part of the history of literature, ought to be a stranger to the modern German publications on that science. The extensive works of *Eichborn*, *Heeren*, and their coadjutors, are, however, so voluminous that they are not likely to become much known beyond the limits of Germany.

Towards the conclusion of his retrospect, M. VILLERS takes particular notice of German literary and critical journals; expressing also his regret that France does not possess one which can be compared to those that are published at Göttingen,



tingen, Halle, Jena, Leipzig, and Heidelberg. Indeed, the inferiority of the French critical journals is surprizing. Under the present melancholy situation of the continent of Europe, it would be some ground of consolation if we could reasonably entertain, with M. VILLERS, the hope 'that the epoch is arrived, in which the barriers will be removed that divide the members of one great family into rival and hostile nations, and in which the whole sum of ideas, and whatever can improve and ennoble man or the state of society, will be made common, and be considered as the patrimony of all.'—but who can flatter himself with the prospect of a peace that shall be long enough to establish mutual confidence; to make the conqueror lay aside the pride of conquest; and to enable the oppressed to forget their humiliation? Who can hope that princes, who have eagerly grasped at a name and a shadow of dignity and power, will promote a republican spirit among men of letters, and on subjects of literature? It is not possible to fetter the mind securely in one respect, while it ranges freely in others; and jealousy among his dependants is one of the weapons by which the oppressor facilitates the maintenance of his sway.

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ART. XI. *Voyages dans l'Amérique Méridionale, &c. ; i. e. Travels in South America, by Don FELIX DE AZARA, Commissioner and Superintendent of the Lines of the Spanish Frontiers in Paraguay, from 1781 to 1801; containing a geographical, political, and civil Description of Paraguay, and the River Plata; an Account of the Discovery and Conquest of those Countries; various Details relative to their Natural History, and the Savage Tribes which inhabit them; a Statement of the Methods employed by the Jesuits to subject and civilize the Natives, &c.; published from the Author's Manuscripts, with a Sketch of his Life and Writings, by C. A. Walckenaer; and enriched with Notes by G. Cuvier, Perpetual Secretary to the Class of Physical Sciences in the Institute, &c. To which is added the Natural History of the Birds of Paraguay and La Plata, by the same Author, translated from the original Spanish, and augmented by a great number of Notes, by M. Sonnini. Accompanied with an Atlas, containing Twenty-five Plates. 4 Vols. 8vo. and 4to. Atlas. Paris. 1809. Imported by de Boffe. Price Four Guineas.*

THE favourable notice which Don FELIX DE AZARA's communications have obtained on the other side of the water, and the signal opportunities which he enjoyed for directing his extended observation to tracts of country which have been very imperfectly explored, and which are destined, perhaps, to undergo new and important political revolutions, induced

induced us to open these volumes with no ordinary degree of eagerness and expectation. After a candid perusal of the whole, it behoves us to state that our gratification has not been unmingled with disappointment: yet the work, with all its defects, bespeaks a vigorous, independent, and active mind, comprizes a rich diversity of materials, and has powerful claims on our deliberate attention. The whole of Volume I. and nearly two thirds of the second, are occupied by the travels; the remaining part of the second is allotted to an introductory view of the natural history of Cochabamba and a description of its productions, by Don *Tadeo Haenke*, Member of the Academies of Sciences at Vienna and Prague; and the third and fourth contain the ornithology of Paraguay and la Plata. The French editor would probably have performed a more acceptable service to the public, if he had either printed the travels separately, or had incorporated in the present work the author's account of the quadrupeds of Paraguay, with the requisite corrections and annotations: or, assuming the writings of the Spaniard as the basis of his plan, he might have worked them into a more seemly fabric. As the publication now stands, the natural history department is very incomplete, allusions being frequently made to another book, which is not within our reach; and the notices of the quadrupeds are scanty and unsatisfactory, because they were avowedly penned with a reference to prior and more ample details. Part of the information contained in the biographical sketch is repeated in the letters prefixed to the work; and several vague and crude statements have been retained in the text, without comment or apology. The author may, nevertheless, regard with self complacency the association of his name with those of *Walckenaer*, *Cuvier*, and *Sonnini*; and the diffusion of his volumes through the medium of a language which is familiar to the scholars and the philosophers of Europe.

His editor informs us that Don FELIX was born at Barbuñales, near Balbastro, in Arragon, on the 18th of May, 1746. A few days previously to this event, his parents, who lived in happy retirement on their estate, had sent their eldest son, Don *Nicholas*, to the university of Salamanca. Don FELIX commenced his literary career in that of Huesca; and, when he had completed his course in philosophy, he entered the military academy of Barcelona. In the latter city, these two brothers, who had never seen each other, enjoyed an affectionate but transient interview; and they did not meet again till the expiration of thirty-five years. In 1764, Don FELIX was appointed a Cadet in the Galician regiment of infantry;

infantry; in 1767, Ensign in the corps of engineers; and in 1775, he was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant. In this capacity he signalized his courage in an expedition against Algiers, and received a dangerous wound from a large copper ball, which shattered one of his ribs, and, to all appearance, deprived him of life. Owing, however, to the kind attention of a friend, and the boldness of a sailor who cut out the ball with a knife, he gradually recovered, after having endured the most excruciating pain, as it was necessary to extract a considerable portion of the rib. The wound did not close till five years afterward: at the same distance of time, it broke out afresh, and thus naturally made way for the remaining fragment of the injured bone. He was then in America, and secluded from all the assistance of art: but the wound healed spontaneously. When roaming in the wilds of the same country, he broke his collar-bone by a fall from his horse, and again recovered without having recourse to any external application. With these accidental exceptions, and another which we shall presently mention, he seems to have enjoyed the most uninterrupted good health.

“ I was accustomed to eat bread, (says he, in a letter to his editor,) till I had reached my twenty-fifth year, without any particular inclination for that species of food: but having experienced at that period of my life great difficulty of digestion, attended with symptoms of general indisposition, especially after dinner, I consulted a skilful physician at Madrid, who surmized that my complaints originated in the use of bread, and advised me to give it up. I did so. My sickness quickly vanished; and, from that time, I have never been indisposed. The want of bread has given me a higher relish for other kinds of aliment, than I felt when I blended them with that general article of human food. I am not in the habit of using any substitute for bread: but I am sensible that I am somewhat more partial to vegetables and fish than to butcher's meat. For the rest, it is not extraordinary that I should abstain from bread, since the inhabitants of the countries which I have traversed are alike strangers to it, though they live as long as we do, and even longer.”

From this, and various instances which have come within our own knowledge, we have reason to believe that esculent roots are generally more light and nourishing than the most elaborate preparations of farinaceous plants.

By the treaty of Idelfonso, the courts of Spain and Portugal had mutually stipulated to name commissioners for the final definition and adjustment of their respective lines of demarcation in South America. Don FELIX DE AZARA, with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel of Engineers, was one of those who were deputed by the Spanish government to direct the execu-

execution of these arrangements, and he set sail accordingly in 1781. By the chicanery of the Portuguese commissioners, however, the business was studiously protracted; till Don FELIX, perceiving that his official services were unavailing, boldly projected a geographical survey of that vast country, of which he had been instructed to ascertain only the boundaries. Undismayed by the certain expence, trouble, fatigue, and danger, which were attendant on an operation of such magnitude and detail, and regardless of the secret or the avowed opposition which he might expect to encounter from the Spanish viceroys, he steadily persevered, during thirteen years, in the prosecution of his scheme; and, owing to the resources of his own unshaken mind, and the zeal of the officers who acted under him, he finally triumphed over every obstacle.

‘ He provided himself with brandy, glass-beads, ribbands, knives, and other trinkets, in order to gain the good will of the savages. The whole of his personal baggage consisted of a few clothes, a little coffee, and salt, with tobacco and the Paraguay herb for his attendants. The latter carried with them only the clothes which they wore: but they took with them a great many horses, regulating the number by the length of the journey, and fixing the proportion sometimes at twelve for each individual. These were by no means requisite for conveying the baggage, which was very trifling: but horses, it should be observed, are extremely common in these countries, occasion no trouble, because they receive only such food as they pick up themselves during the night, and are very easily fatigued. The travellers were also accompanied by large dogs.

‘ They rose an hour before day-break to prepare breakfast. After this repast, individuals were detached from the troop to collect the horses which were dispersed in the neighbourhood, and sometimes even at a league’s distance, because, except those which each person retained close by him, during the night, they roamed and fed quite at large. As soon as the horses were re-assembled, each person let loose the animal which had served him for twenty-four hours; when the whole troop formed a circle round the relay-horses, to prevent their escape, while a man advanced into the circle, and, by means of a noose, laid hold of such as were necessary for the journey. Finally, all put themselves in motion two hours after sun-rise. As there are no open roads in these deserts, a guide, well acquainted with the country, marched three hundred paces a-head, and quite alone, that his attention might not be diverted by conversation of any kind. After him came the relay-horses, which, in turn, were followed by the main body of the travellers; and thus the party continued its progress, without stopping, till two hours before sunset.

‘ They then selected for a halting station the neighbourhood of some marsh or rivulet; and men were dispatched, in different directions, to procure wood for fuel, and to catch cows for food, either from

from among the wild cattle in the plains, or from those which belonged to some habitation, if any such occurred within the distance of two or three leagues. In case these wild cows should fail, others followed in the rear of the troop. In some districts, a sufficient number of armadillos were procured for the subsistence of the whole company. To provide against the eventual failure of all these resources in a projected line of route, they previously laid in a stock of cows' flesh, which they cut into very long shreds, of the thickness of a man's finger, dried them in the sun; and conveyed them in packages on their horses, being the only sort of food which they carried along with them. They ate it when roasted on wooden skewers, the only mode of preparing meat in these countries, which forms the sole food of the inhabitants.

Previously to encamping on any spot, they were obliged to take precautions against the vipers, which are often very numerous. With this view, they led out all the horses on the space which they intended to occupy, so as either to crush these reptiles, or to induce such of them as lurked under the grass to come out; an expedient to which the lives of a few horses were occasionally sacrificed. On retiring to rest, every individual spread a piece of cows' skin on the ground. M. DE AZARA was the only person who had a hammock suspended to stakes, or trees. During the night, every body kept his horse near to his person, that, in case of need, he might effect his escape from wild beasts. The approach of the latter was always announced by the dogs, which scented them at a great distance, because they exhale a very strong odour. In spite of every attention, it often happened that several vipers glided into the camp, but they usually lay concealed and quiet under the cows' hides on which the people slept. They sometimes passed near to or even over the men, without doing them the smallest harm; for they never bite but when disturbed.

'This order of march was observed only in those tracts in which no apprehensions were entertained from the savage Indians. Where he had reason to dread their encounter, M. DE AZARA had recourse to other precautions: he moved only in the night-time; he dispatched scouts in every direction to explore the proper line of march; two patrols preceded on each side of the troop; and each kept his rank, and had his arms in readiness. In spite of all this prudence and discretion, he was frequently attacked, and had the misfortune to lose some of his men.'

In the midst of these laborious and perilous wanderings, geometrical calculations, and the details that were inseparable from the pursuit of his primary object, the intrepid Spaniard contrived to bestow a considerable portion of his attention on the quadrupeds and birds which were peculiar to these regions. He at first made war on these animals, solely for the purpose of preserving their skins, and transmitting them to Europe: but, perceiving that they were soon injured by keeping, he adopted the plan of minutely describing each individual in its

recent state. From the rapid accumulation of his descriptions, he was frequently at a loss to know whether he had not previously characterized certain specimens; and therefore, in order to obviate repetitions, he distributed his stores into groupes, each of which he distinguished by general characters; thus simplifying and reducing his labour, relieving his recollection, acquiring more promptitude of discrimination, and exhibiting a pleasing example of an individual mind devising that mode of procedure which the science of ages has consecrated and improved. He had not long persevered in thus methodizing the objects of his investigation, when chance threw in his way a Spanish translation of the works of *Buffon*. We need not say with what assiduity he perused or rather devoured the whole: but, should the strictures, which he has hazarded on the pages of that illustrious author, appear to some persons either needlessly multiplied, or expressed in terms rather pointedly severe, the peculiar circumstances in which he was unavoidably placed, his extreme solicitude for the discovery of truth, and his long seclusion from the resources of European literature, as well as from the urbanity of European manners, may be allowed to disarm the censure of the fastidious. We may add that his descriptions and remarks were originally destined for the perusal and revision of *Buffon* himself; and intended to be inserted, as supplementary matter, in his celebrated work, instead of forming a separate publication. **M. DE AZARA's** descriptions of the external forms of quadrupeds and birds evince much patient observation, while his account of their internal dispositions and habits cannot fail at once to excite and to fix the attention of the curious.

It would be equally foreign to our purpose and disgusting to our readers, to recite the base and unworthy artifices by which the Spanish viceroys endeavoured to sully and obscure the fair reputation of the traveller. The injustice and ingratitude of his superiors (were they intitled to that appellation?) diminished not the zeal with which he executed their commands. When specially charged with the survey of the dreary waste on the southern coast, he shrunk not from the task, though he was aware that the performance of it would expose him to the daily attacks of ferocious savages called *Pampas*. He was also intrusted with the command of the Brazilian frontier, which he was directed to explore, and to free from the Portuguese settlers. He was moreover enjoined to visit the harbours of the Plata, and to draw up a plan of defence, in the event of an attack on the part of the English. At the request of the viceroys, he composed various representations and memoirs relative to the administration of public

public affairs; and, among other schemes of salutary reform, he recommended the emancipation of the civilized Indians. Towards the close of his residence in America, he provided settlements for many families who had migrated from old Spain under the auspices of government, with the view of colonizing the shores of Patagonia, but whom the supineness or the incapacity of the viceroy of Buenos Ayres allowed to languish without occupation, and to subsist on the public treasury.

The long oblivion of the complicated and meritorious services of the subject of these notices at length drew to a period; for, in 1789, he was promoted to the rank of Captain in the navy\*; and, in 1801, he obtained, what he had often solicited in vain, permission to revisit his native country. There he availed himself of an early opportunity of committing to the press his history of the quadrupeds and birds of South America; which, in affectionate and pathetic terms, he dedicated to his brother, Don *Nicholas*, then residing at Paris, in the character of Ambassador from the Court of Madrid. When he arrived in the French capital, the author divided his time between his brother's society and the study of Natural History.

On the 5th of October (says M. *Walckenaer*.) the King of Spain had advanced him to the rank of Brigadier General in the Army. In proportion, however, as his brother cherished the intimacy of his friendship, the more powerfully he felt the force of an attachment with which disparity of years blended something like paternal fondness. In short, he was easily persuaded to resign his new dignity, and to live under the same roof with his elder brother. Alas! he did not long enjoy the happiness of this devotion of his existence to fraternal affection. On the 26th of January, 1803, he saw with the deepest affliction that beloved brother, to whom he had sacrificed all the hopes of ambition, and all the splendour of preferment, expire in his arms.—

The King of Spain recalled the survivor, and fixed him in his own capital, by appointing him a member of a military board, whose functions had a reference to the affairs of the two Indies.

No great length of time has elapsed since I could have concluded this sketch with the gratifying intelligence that Don *FELIX* at last enjoyed, in the bosom of his country, that repose which he had so dearly earned: but I have, since that period, vainly employed all the means in my power to learn the history of his fortunes, and to present him with the joint tribute of his own labours. With painful emotions I must now consign to the press those pages, which it was my happiness to trace.

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\* This appointment, of a *Colonel of Engineers* to be a *Captain in the Navy*, will appear singular to the English reader.

This abrupt and mysterious termination of a friendly correspondence would almost tempt us to apprehend, that the romantic and high-toned sentiments of the generous Spaniard may have involved his fate in the miseries of his much injured country.

In the course of his introduction, the author takes occasion to state that his investigations were not limited to geographical surveys :

' Finding myself (says he) in a vast country which I conceived to be unknown, almost wholly ignorant of European transactions, deprived of books, and of agreeable and instructive conversation, I could scarcely find any source of employment but in the objects which nature offered to my contemplation. Hence I felt myself, in some measure, compelled to obey her call; and I perceived at every step beings which arrested my attention, because they appeared new to me. I thought it would be convenient, and even necessary, to note my observations and the reflections which they suggested. Distrust, indeed, on the ground of ignorance, checked this idea, and induced the persuasion that my alleged discoveries had been already completely described by the historians, travellers, and naturalists, who had written on America. Besides, I could not dissemble that a man in my insulated situation, overwhelmed with fatigue, busied with geography and other indispensable details, and destitute of assistance and advice, must be altogether incapable of describing objects so numerous, and so much varied. Yet I resolved to observe every thing which my capacity, leisure, and circumstances would permit; committing all my remarks to writing, and suspending their publication till I should be relieved from the pressure of official business.

' After my return to Europe, I deemed it improper to withhold my observations from the learned and the curious. They will easily perceive that I possess no knowledge relative to the characteristics of earths, or stones, vegetables, fishes, insects, or reptiles, and that I have not bestowed on these subjects all the time that I could have wished to have devoted to them: but I have great reliance on their sagacity for supplying my deficiencies in these respects. My statements of facts, however, they may rest assured, are wholly unmingled with exaggeration or conjecture; since I assert nothing which I have not seen, and which any individual may not verify by his own observation, or through the medium of the inhabitants of the country. With respect to the inferences which I sometimes deduce from these facts, my readers will assent to such as are properly founded, while they are perfectly at liberty to abandon those of an opposite description, and to suggest others more deserving of attention; in which latter case I shall be the first to approve.'

Don FELIX informs us, moreover, that he not only directed his attention to the antient traditions of the country, but perused



a large portion of the civil archives of Assumption, several of the documents contained in those of Buenos Ayres, Corrientes, Santa Fé, and all the early memoirs relative to the colonies and parishes ; by which means he has been enabled to correct the many errors of *De Vaca*, *Herrera*, *Schimidels*, *Centenera*, *Guzman*, *Lozano*, and *Guevera*. To his short *catalogue raisonné* of these writers, the editor has subjoined a few supplementary notices in the margin.

The first of the present volumes contains nine chapters, which treat of the climate and winds ; the disposition and qualities of the soil ; salts, and minerals ; the principal rivers and harbours ; fishes ; wild and cultivated vegetables ; insects, reptiles, quadrupeds, and birds. The remarks on climate and winds, which have chiefly a reference to Assumption and Buenos Ayres, are too vague and desultory to afford much satisfaction to the meteorological student. We are presented with no tabular view of the degrees of heat and cold, or the quantity of rain, &c. ; and even a thermometer appears to have been often wanting. Thunder-storms are very frequent, and sometimes attended with destructive consequences. During the author's residence in Paraguay, many individuals were killed by lightning ; and, in a single storm, which occurred on the 21st of January, 1793, the lightning fell thirty-seven times within the town of Buenos Ayres, and killed nineteen persons.

Owing to the general and extensive flatness of these countries, the smaller rivers are arrested and evaporated before they reach the sea ; and the lakes, which are very numerous, and occasionally also very extensive, are remarkably shallow. Though that of Xarayes, for example, is presumed to measure 110 leagues in length, and 40 in breadth, it is nowhere navigable, and is evaporated to complete dryness during the greater part of the year. 'Some of the old writers believed that it was the source of the river Paraguay, whereas the fact is precisely the reverse : others, who took a pleasure in forging tales, have asserted that in the centre of this lake existed the empire of the Xarayes, or of el Dorado, or of Paytili ; and they have embellished this falsehood by other fables still more unaccountable.' The quantity of soil that is flooded by these vast pieces of water, the impracticability of drainage and irrigation in boundless tracts of dead level, and the sand-stone rock, which stretches over all the flats on the east of the Paraguay and Parana, present insuperable obstacles to extensive vegetation and culture. — The following particulars it will be proper to mention, as nearly as we can, in the author's own language ;

'On the north of the river Plata, or in the plains of Montevideo and Maldonado, I have observed that the herds search for, and eat

with avidity, dried bones ; that, in proportion as they advance northward, they eat a species of earth called *Barrero*, which is a salt clay found in the ditches ; and that, when this fails, (which happens in the eastern districts of Paraguay and the Missions of Uruguay,) cattle of all kinds infallibly perish at the expiration of four months. We can scarcely conceive the eagerness which the herds manifest in seeking for and devouring this salt argillaceous earth : if they discover it after a month's privation, they are not to be driven from it by blows ; and by indulging in it to excess they sometimes die of indigestion. I have been assured that the birds and quadrupeds of this country, which feed on vegetables, manifest the same propensity ; and I can, at least, personally vouch for a great quantity of salt in the stomach of the Tapir. From these facts, I conclude that the pastures of the countries in question are incapable of supporting any species of cattle, without the addition of salt, or salted clay : but that the freshness of the herbage diminishes from the Missions to the river Plata. In Brazil, notwithstanding the luxuriance of the pasture, it is found impossible to rear cattle without salt ; and since none is found in the country, and it is all imported from Europe, it forms a very expensive article, being sold on account of government.

The state of things is quite reversed in the whole of Chaco, or in the region situated to the west of the Paraguay and Parana, and from the Plata southwards ; every rivulet, lake, and well, being brackish in summer. Even the rivers partake of this quality when their waters are low.

DON FELIX DE AZARA is very sparing of his notices concerning fossil productions, and communicates no information relative to the stratification of the districts which he traversed. His account of the celebrated mass of native iron, in the plains of Chaco, does not materially differ from that of Don Rubin de Celis, though his mode of explaining the phenomenon may be allowed to be his own : he says ; ' I am inclined to believe that it is as antient as the world, and that it proceeded in its present form from the hands of the Creator.'

[To be continued.]

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ART. XII. *Œuvres Philosophiques, &c.* ; i. e. The Philosophical, Historical, and Literary Works of M. D'ALEMBERT, &c. Vols XIII—XVIII. 8vo. Paris. Imported by De Boffe.

TO the edition of these works which we announced in our Appendix to Vol. 52. N. S. p. 475. six volumes have since been added : the first of them, or the XIIIth of the collection, consists of farther pieces from Tacitus, and a few other Latin authors ; together with translations of them, and

of some of the essays of Lord Bacon. A very competent judge\* regards these French versions as models proper to be consulted by future translators, though they are not of the first order.—The first half of the XIVth volume contains the preliminary discourses which were prefixed to the mathematical performances of the author : these are in his best manner, and are all distinguished by that clearness, precision, and depth which were habitual to him. The remaining part of this volume contains the philosopher's correspondence with different persons of eminence, including the late Empress Catherine, the great Frederic, *Montesquieu*, and *Beccaria*.

The XVth and XVIth volumes furnish the so much decried correspondence that was carried on between this philosopher and *Voltaire*, from 1746 to the year of the latter's death. While many parts of this epistolary intercourse exhibit to us the respective writers, a greater proportion of it at this time neither interests nor entertains ; we speak of it with reference to persons who are not strangers to the French literature of the period, and the intrigues of its professors : but at the same time we find scattered through it too many important anecdotes and valuable observations, to allow the omission of it in a complete edition of this author's works. It also makes us well acquainted with these important personages, and in a great degree with the turn and spirit of the literati of the period. It shews us philosophy frantic with zeal, swelling with rage, and alike too inveterate in her hatred and too ardent in pursuit of her object, to be contented with mild and gentle methods of effecting the downfall of that religion which she considered as her foe. It hence appears that this sect not only denied the truth of revelation, but regarded the Christian religion, its forms, and its worship, as so pernicious to society, that it was indispensable to public happiness and prosperity that they should be abolished. It seems evidently to have been the aim of the Encyclopedists to destroy the credit and procure the overthrow of the clergy, in order to seize their places, and supersede them in their functions as they respected government and social intercourse. Although extremely solicitous to subvert ecclesiastical hierarchies, they seem not disposed to quarrel with civil dominion. Nothing can exceed the indignation which D'ALEMBERT pours out in one of his letters to the King of Prussia, against some rash *philosophe* who had denominated priests the allies of kings. Indeed, the language of this philosopher and his brethren, in their correspondence with the potentates who patronized them, is most

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\* *La Harpe, Cours de Litt.* tom. xv. p. 112.

smooth and courtly ; and they often carry their adulation to fulsomeness. *Voltaire* and D'ALEMBERT, and the fraternity in which they held the lead, seem to have been wholly strangers to those levelling politics, which at a somewhat later period were proclaimed and brought into action by their disciples.

It has been observed of D'ALEMBERT that, in the works which he sent forth into the world, nothing can be found that offends against religion : but that it is a well ascertained fact that his letters, which are so hostile to it, and which have appeared since his death, were published in pursuance of his intention and directions. The letters which passed between him and the King of Prussia, which occupy the two concluding volumes of the present collection, are liable to similar objections with those which were interchanged between him and *Voltaire*, but in a much less degree. The royal correspondent is a tenacious and able advocate for theism, and the political good effects of religion. On the latter topic, the academician either *trims*, or is borne down by the superior genius of Frederic ; for we are at a loss to recognize the same person in the correspondent of *Voltaire* and in the correspondent of the Prussian monarch on the same subject. The intercourse with the latter is not only more sober and decent than with the former, but is also much more entertaining and instructive. Frederic appears in it to great advantage ; not only are his reflections on human affairs more just and profound than those of the philosophers, but his effusions display more of vivacity and playfulness, and are penned in a better epistolary style.

ART. XIII. *Histoire de Hambourg, &c. i. e. A History of the City of Hamburg ; its religion, Government, and Commerce. First Part.* 2 Vols. 8vo. Paris and Leipzig. Imported by Deconchy. Price 1l. 4s.

*VOLTAIRE* has somewhere remarked, with reference to the modern mania for publications, that the age was now arrived for writing the history of *villages in folio*. It lately fell to our lot to review the history of an *hospital* (the Charter-house) in *quarto* ; and we have now before us the *first part* of the history of the city of Hamburg in a thousand and thirty four octavo pages ; accompanied by a kind of promise that, if this portion be favourably received by the public, another part will be speedily forthcoming. We have no wish to depreciate the consequence of the free city of Hamburg ; and it gives us pleasure at all times to trace the progress of liberty and wealth : but we can scarcely agree with the author that the world at large is so warmly interested in the minutiae of the Ham-

Hamburg history as he seems to imagine. 'Hamburg,' says he in his preface, 'is famous in all countries; every body speaks of it, and yet its history is little known. Many authors have written on this subject, and several histories of it exist, but they are either inaccurate or incomplete.' We should be glad to know whether the progressive increase of other trading towns is more generally known than that of Hamburg; and whether a similar uncertainty does not prevail in respect to the history of Gottenburgh, Dantzick, or any commercial city, which, from not being the capital of an extensive state, has made no prominent figure in the general annals of nations? — After having expatiated on the necessity of a history of Hamburg, the author next proceeds to comment on his own production, which he modestly terms a compilation, but which he at the same time takes very good care to represent as the only complete work on the subject. It is ushered in by a pompous dedication to the Prince of *Ponte Corvo*; who, our readers will recollect, was for a considerable time in command at Hamburg after its seizure by the French.

The German historians of Hamburg, with national ardour for the honour of lofty descent, have traced its foundation to Charlemagne; and it would ill accord with a Frenchman's courtesy to express doubts on the authenticity of so flattering and illustrious an origin. In 1241, Hamburg concluded with Lubeck a commercial treaty, which is chiefly remarkable as forming the basis of the celebrated Hanseatic league. It consisted in an agreement to guarantee mutually their independence, to clear the roads of robbers and the adjacent seas of pirates, and to establish conjunct deliberations on matters of trade. Eleven years afterward, Brunswick having acceded to this treaty, the deputies of the three towns met at Lubeck, and deliberated on the means of extending and securing their commerce by establishing factories at London, Bruges, and Novogorod in Russia. The importance of Novogorod consisted in its being an *entrepôt* for the merchandise of the East. Situated on a navigable river running into Lake Ladoga, it received the commodities of Russia, Turkey, Persia, and even of the Levant, and exported them to the port of Wisby in the Baltic, whence they were distributed throughout the North; and Novogorod was in a great measure a free city. It was on this occasion that Hamburg, Lubeck, and Brunswick took the name of Hanse-towns; the word *Hanse*, in old German, signifying *union* or *association*. The lawless manners of the times called loudly for such an incorporation in defence of commerce. Not only was it customary to seize a stranded vessel as the property of the baron who possessed the shore on which the accident

accident happened, but, on land, when a waggon was overturned, all the merchandise which had touched the earth was, by a barbarous usage, confiscated to the owner of the ground. The property of a man dying in a strange place was seized by the government of the country in which his death occurred; stolen goods, when recovered, were appropriated in the same way, and lost for ever to the owner; and when a merchant proved insolvent, it was not unusual to arrest those of his countrymen who were on the spot, and to make them become responsible for him. To these tyrannical extortions, it was the object of the Hanseatic association to put an end. In 1266, they established in London the factory which was afterward denominated the Stgel-yard, and continued to receive successively the accession of various towns to the east and west during the two ensuing centuries. Next to Lubeck and Hamburg, the leading cities were Cologne and Dantzick; each of the four serving as a central point or kind of capital to the various towns of the league that were situated in the adjacent countries.

The Lutheran religion having made a rapid progress in Hamburg, that city acceded to the league of Smalcald in 1535, and determined to share the fate of the Protestant cause. It continued afterward in a state of progressive advancement in trade and population, and of gradual improvement in its political constitution. The history before us ends in 1712; the epoch of a definitive compact between the senate and the burghers in respect to the distribution of municipal power. This power is shared between the senate, the council of elders, the college of sixty, another college of one hundred and eighty, and the burghers at large: but it is vested principally in the senate.

It would be a fruitless task to attempt any abstract of this prolix history, or to select any particular passage out of so uninteresting a mass; we therefore confine our extracts to some of the concluding remarks on the form of the constitution of Hamburg:

‘The government is free, but by no means democratic. The burghers cannot alter the laws without the consent nor even without the demand of the senate. In a democratic government, the people are at liberty to choose the depositories of their power; in Hamburg, the members of the executive government elect themselves. The power of dispensing with the laws as well as of framing them is vested in the senate. The government is thus lodged in the senate and the burghers conjointly; each taken separately has a similar voice in making laws: it is their united power that constitutes the republic. Hamburg is thus a mixed government, which is its great advantage. The mutual balance and the support of reciprocal rights preserve the state from the opposite evils of anarchy and oligarchy. The rank of senator is in no degree a family property; it is open to every  
every

every citizen whose character is unblemished; and the claims of all to obtain it are equal. No employment or distinction confers a title to it: but the good opinion of his fellow citizens is the only channel by which a person can attain it. Individual security and equality of rights constitute the liberty of the inhabitants.

Hamburg, being an imperial city in the beginning, was governed by imperial legates, and made part of the duchy of Saxony given in fief by the imperial house to the family of Billing. It afterward passed to other families. In the 13th century, following the defeats of the Counts of Holstein by Waldemar, King of Denmark, it became the property of the latter by the right of conquest. It was afterward abandoned to the Emperor, and again conquered by Waldemar; but the Count of Holstein, taking advantage of Waldemar's subsequent reverse of fortune, reconquered his states. Hamburg submitted, reserving her established privileges, and maintaining her connection with the empire; which was farther strengthened by subsequent imperial edicts, particularly by the confirmation of its rights in 1438. The claims of superiority over the city, made afterward by the Counts of Holstein, when Kings of Denmark, have never been sanctioned either by the empire or by Hamburg herself. This, however, was long a disputed question; and it was not till 1768 that the fetters which might have shackled the liberty of Hamburg were finally broken, and that she was fully confirmed in her rights as an independent imperial city. This was effected by a solemn agreement between the house of Holstein and the city, which was approved and confirmed by the Emperor. — It is commerce which connects Hamburg with the rest of the world; the military, so highly valued in other countries, are here considered in no other light than as the paid servants of the state; they have no share in the government; and the burgher-soldiery constitute the true strength of the city. The exclusive privilege of the senate to propose laws is not so great a prerogative as it appears. The consideration of the proposition remains with the burghers solely; if, however, they modify a proposed law so as to make it unacceptable to the senate, the latter may decline the adoption of it; but the senate cannot of itself levy a tax, nor dispose of the public money, nor raise troops. They cannot order the troops of the state to march, nor contract alliances, nor even introduce any ecclesiastical regulation, without the consent of the Elders; in short, no innovation can take place without the concurrence of the college of sixty. The senate is composed of four burgomasters and twenty-four senators, along with four syndics and four secretaries. It elects its own members: the requisites in a candidate are, to be a burgher, to have attained the age of thirty, to belong to the Lutheran religion, and to be independent, and unconnected with any foreign prince. The salary of a mercantile senator is 200*l.* sterling a-year; that of a senator educated to the law, 400*l.*

We must acknowledge that the author of this work expressed what was strictly conformable to truth, when he called it a *compilation*. It is a translation, from German writers, of all that has been published respecting Hamburg; and a translation

tion of which the superiority to the originals is not very conspicuous. It seems a register of the various events which befel the city, as well from its relation, friendly or hostile, with other states, as from the altercations for power which arose within its walls. Much also is said of the progress of its streets, churches, and markets. For a history, the narrative is greatly too minute; and it is not thickly sown with those reflections which constitute the essence of that dignified species of composition, and distinguish it from mere annals. It may be satisfactory to the citizens of Hamburg to put on record the events, however minute, which relate to the progress of their state: but to the world at large, the history of any city is interesting only in those circumstances which attach to it in common with more extended societies; circumstances, some of which connect it with its neighbours by influencing their political condition, while others unite it with all mankind by exhibiting the progressive advances of industry and civilization. Deficient as the book is in an exposition of these essential points, we cannot recommend it to the English public; nor do we suppose that it will excite much interest any where beyond the territory of Hamburg.

**ART. XIV.** *Nouveau Cours complet, &c. i. e.* A new complete Course of theoretical and practical Agriculture, containing Cultivation on the large and the small scale, Rural and Domestic Economy, Veterinary Medicine, &c.; or a scientific and universal Dictionary of Agriculture: a work compiled after the plan of that of the Abbé Rozier, and of which every article is preserved that has been sanctioned by experience. By the Members of the Section of Agriculture in the Institute of France, &c. Illustrated by copper-plates. 8vo. 6 vols. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 4l. 4s.

**T**HOUGH we have six bulky and closely printed volumes of this work before us, it reaches only to the end of letter G, so that it promises to be a very full and extensive collection. Such a dictionary was certainly much wanted in France; and the list of the compilers given at the end of the preface is calculated to raise the expectation as well as to insure the patronage of the public. Twenty-five years ago, Rozier's \* *Complete Course of Agriculture* appeared, and at that time it was much and deservedly esteemed: but the present editors remark that since that period many important defects have been discovered in it, in consequence of the attention given to the

\* Poor Rozier, during the Revolution, was destroyed by a bomb at the siege of Lyons.



art itself, and to those sciences which administer to agricultural knowledge, particularly chemistry and natural history. The magnitude of this new undertaking necessarily demanded the union of various talents and acquirements; and the department assigned to each of the compilers is distinctly specified, the initial of the name of the writer being also inserted at the end of every article.

To enable our readers to form some judgment of the importance of the work, and of the distribution of its several parts, we shall give the names of the contributors, together with the province which each has undertaken. *M. Thouin* has written the articles relative to horticulture, a subject which was very slightly treated in *Rozier's* work: *M. Parmentier* has devoted himself to the articles on rural and domestic economy: *M. Tessier* to those on the raising and management of live stock: *M. Huzard* to those on the veterinary art: *M. Sylvestre* to those branches of physical science which are connected with agriculture: *M. Chaptal* to those on the theory of chemistry, and its application to fermentation and distillation, as evinced in making wine, vinegar, brandy, &c.: *M. Lacroix* to those in which the mathematics are employed to explain surveying, the construction of almanacks, and comparative tables of weights and measures: *M. Perthuis* to those on the management of forests and rural constructions: *M. Chassiron* to those on political economy as applied to agriculture; *M. Turtot* to those which relate the processes of farming, and the connection between theory and actual practice: *M. Décaudolle* to those which include botany, and the physiology of plants; and *M. du Tour* to those which embrace natural history. This list is enlarged by the names of *M. M. Duchêne, Voisin, and Feburier*, of the Agricultural Society of Versailles, *M. Garnier-Deschênes*, (*ancien notaire*,) *M. Desplat*, farrier, and member of the Agricultural Society of the Seine, and *M. Brebisson* of that of Caën, who have furnished articles on the subjects to which they have chiefly devoted their labour and meditations.

Such are the promising appearances under which this dictionary is ushered into the world; and such a phalanx of science must, in the very nature of things, powerfully contribute towards the accomplishment of the object proposed. As, however, a detailed account of the actual state of agriculture in France would be rather a matter of curiosity than of use to the English reader, we feel ourselves required to do little more than barely announce this voluminous compilation. We may judge how much the improvement of the soil is neglected by the French gentry, and how little the habits of rural industry are suited to their taste, from the earnestness which

*M. Par-*

M. Parmentier manifests in persuading proprietors to reside on their estates, and in reprobating their dissipated and luxurious mode of life in great cities. The sentiments of the Emperor on this subject are particularly stated in the preliminary discourse, for the purpose of impressing them on the public mind. 'The advantages,' says the editor, 'which result from the practice of land-owners living on their estates have not escaped the penetrating eye of the Emperor; who having, through his minister of the interior, made known his wish to learn the actual progress of agriculture, with the view of farther encouraging it, expressly declares that it is principally by the residence of proprietors in the country, by the cultivation which they themselves superintend, and by the care which they themselves bestow on the amelioration of their condition and that of their families, that the improvement of rural economy can be effected. Doubtless it is this interesting order of citizens who merit those distinctions and honourable recompences, by which government has promised to distinguish the friends of the plough.'

Favourable mention is made of those gentlemen who have improved their domains, and have contributed to advance the knowledge of rural affairs, whether relating to plantations and the growth of vegetables, or to the management of live stock; and due praise is bestowed on the agricultural societies that have been formed in the departments. Even the fair sex are not forgotten, but are urged to cherish the domestic virtues, and to take pride in being good country-housewives. We apprehend that French women in general have much to learn, in order to qualify them for the superintendence of the farmhouse and the dairy.

A glance at the plates, which represent tools and implements of husbandry, is sufficient to prove that the Gallic agriculturist does not enjoy the advantages of those scientific improvements which are familiar to almost every English farmer: yet, if we turn to Section IX. Part I. of the article on *Agriculture*, in which the state of this most useful art in the British isles is noticed, we should be led from the complexion of this article to conclude that farming was at the lowest ebb among us, and that the cultivators of our soil were in the most distressed and uncomfortable situation. According to this account, manufactures and commerce have deprived our agriculture of the chief means of its prosperity, our farmers want capital, and the pressing of men for our navy has produced a want of hands for the field. In short, the French are taught by the compilers of this dictionary to believe that the necessity of the times has tempted the intelligent English cultivator to abandon

abandon the plough, in order to engage in commercial speculations. They quote with apparent pleasure the enumeration which has been given by *Marshall, Young, Dickson*, and other English writers on rural economy, of the obstructions which embarrass the efforts of those who devote themselves to the improvement of the country; and they conclude, from those circumstances, in connection with the wide range of our commerce, that British agriculture must be in a deplorable state.

No doubt, the French are ready to believe that our navy, which to them is the source of such incessant mortification, has been gradually undermining our own internal prosperity: but if they could survey the comfort (we may say, the luxury) of the modern English farmer, they would see no reason for supposing that our ships, which victoriously traverse the ocean, have in any degree paralyzed the labours of the plough; or that the energies of trade have been obtained by the sacrifice of our agricultural capital. It is true that we are far from having reached that perfection in agriculture, which Great Britain is capable of receiving: but the French must not flatter themselves with imagining that, because we complain of obstacles, our fields are forsaken and our farmers are starving. If many of our merchants live like princes, many of our farmers live like gentry; — only *too much so*, indeed.

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ART. XV. *Le Petit Carillonneur; i. e. The little Bell-ringer.* By M. DUCRAY DUMINIL. 12mo. 4 Vols. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 18s.

FOR one or two volumes of the whipt-syllabus of literature, we are always provided with the milk of human kindness: but there is some danger of its being exhausted when an unprofitable work is extended to four or five volumes; though we are tempted to address ourselves in the words of Pope,

“Your silence here is better than your spite,  
For who can rail so long as *they* can write?”

The chief interest of the present novel turns on the mysterious origin of the little Bell-ringer, or Chimer; and in one respect, at least, we were able to sympathize with *Dominique* very sincerely, since we were quite as weary as he was of the mistakes and uncertainties to which the secret of his birth gives rise. We think that these perplexities of nativity are the least amusing of any which can be attached to the hero of a romance; and we would say with *Boileau*,

“*J’aimerais mieux encore qu’il déclînât son nom,  
Et dît, je suis Oreste, ou bien, Agamemnon;*

*Que*

*Que d'aller par un tas de confuses merveilles;  
Sans rien dire à l'esprit, etourdir les oreilles :  
Le sujet n'est jamais assez expliqué."*

M. DUCRAY-DUMINIL commits an oversight when he tells us in the beginning, that 'Monsieur and Madame Craquet' cannot read the papers which they find in the little boy's pockets, and yet afterward their nephew produces a packet of their letters in proof that *Dominique* is not their son.—Some other instances occur in which probability is not sufficiently observed : we hear of a man who is so tortured by remorse that he cannot "sleep o' nights ;" and who strolls through various subterranean passages to divert his melancholy, till at last he is overpowered by the drowsy god, and reclines against a decayed partition which breaks with his weight : when he is precipitated through the aperture into a dungeon, and continues sleeping for two hours, notwithstanding the noise and the bruises that are occasioned by his fall !—The patronage which the Bell-ringer obtains is not less astonishing. In every place which he visits, he immediately acquires friends, and is constantly informed that the last organist or bell-ringer is just dead, and that the employment awaits his acceptance. *Very à-propos !*—The denouement is also replete with improbabilities : but the language is natural, though not scrupulously delicate ; and the childhood of the principal character is pleasingly delineated.

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ART. XVI. *Histoires, Nouvelles, et Contes Moraux ; &c. ; i. e.* Stories, Novels, and Moral Tales. By E. M. L. DE SEVELINGES. 12mo. Paris. 1809. Imported by De Boffe. Price 5s.

THESE tales are "such stuff as dreams are made of ;" wild, unconnected, and improbable ; or, as Mercutio says,

"The children of an idle brain  
Begot of nothing but vain phantasie."

They have already appeared in the French *Mercures*, and are now first collected into a volume, with as little claim to the title of 'Moral Tales' as had the first set of *Marmontel's Contes Moraux* ; which, we must observe, these resemble in nothing so much as in the lightness of their morality.

We may, however, offer these productions to such readers as are in the habit of stipulating that a tale shall end happily ; for whatever may have been the errors or misfortunes of the characters in the beginning of each history, a repentant lover, or a relenting father, generally comes "in very happy time" to terminate the scene, according to the heroine's wishes and the reader's hopes.

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